

THE
INDIAN ANTIQUARY,
A JOURNAL OF ORIENTAL RESEARCH

IN
ARCHÆOLOGY, HISTORY, LITERATURE, LANGUAGES, PHILOSOPHY, RELIGION, FOLKLORE,
&c., &c., &c.

EDITED BY
JAS. BURGESS, M.R.A.S., F.R.G.S.,
MEMBRE DE LA SOCIÉTÉ ASIATIQUE, FELLOW OF THE UNIVERSITY OF BOMBAY,
ARCHÆOLOGICAL SURVEYOR AND REPORTER TO GOVERNMENT, WESTERN INDIA,
AUTHOR OF "THE ROCK-TEMPLES OF ELEPHANTA," "THE TEMPLES OF ŚĀTRUĢĪYĀ,"
"VIEWS OF ARCHITECTURE AND SCENERY IN GUJARĀT AND RĀJPUTĀNĀ," &c.

VOL. IV.—1875.

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ERRATA IN VOL. IV.

Page 3 a, after line 4, insert:—

Water will serve to put out fire, umbrellas 'gainst the heat,

A sharp hook guides the elephant, the ox and ass we beat,

Disease we cure with doctors' stuff, the serpent's bite with charms,

Against the fool, the worst of ills, nature provides no arms.

Page 6, note *, for *Ante*, read vol. III.

„ 20 „ *, last word read *lannakāṅgi*.

„ 39 a, l. 16 from bottom, for *π*ⁿ read *π*.

„ 46 a „ 43, for *on* read *in*.

„ 48 a „ 4, for *pēij* read *pēy*.

„ 48 a „ 19, for *practical* read *poetical*.

„ 56 b „ 10, for *or* read *of*.

„ 75 b, note 91, for *is* read *ar*.

„ 76 a, l. 13, *dele*].

„ 102 b „ 12 from bottom, for *Mahamadans* read *Muhammadans*.

„ 107 b „ 4, for vol. II, read vol. III.

„ 110 a, l. 28 a, for *Graculus religiosus* read *Aceridotheres tristis*.

„ 161 a „ 43, for *Thankawar* read *Thautawar*.

„ 161 b „ 16, for *hurried* read *harrid*.

„ 231 a „ 14, for *παπαλους* read *πεπλους*.

„ 233 a „ 16, for *Dadhisthala* read *Dahisthala*.

„ 235 a „ 35, for *Svayambhumābhakā-ladeva* read *Svayambhumābhakā-ladeva*.

„ 236 b, note, l. 2, for *Kaṇ. Kaṇbi* read *Kuṇ. Kulambī*.

„ 244 a, l. 43, for *Antikonā* read *Antikonā*.

„ 244 b „ 30, for *varttikakdra* read *varttikakdra*.

„ 245 a „ 51 for *'Ophir* read *Ophir*.

„ 247 b „ 3, after *Mahābhāṣya* insert *inverted commas*.

„ 248 a „ 52, for *Mahavāṇso* read *Mahāvāṇso*.

„ 249 a „ 4, after *Penslope* insert full point.

„ „ „ 24, for *Lassen* read *you*.

„ „ „ 35 for *adyā' pi* read *adyā' pi*.

Page 249 a, line 47, for *talañchanoripikāṣi* read *ta-kañchanaripikāṣi*.

„ 249 b „ 16 for *Sakābdah* read *Sakābda*.

„ „ „ 20 for *regard* read *regards*.

„ „ „ 42, *dele* *inverted commas* before the.

„ 250 a „ 13, for *Steitz*, read *Stoitz*.

„ „ „ 26 for *eo* read *eis*.

„ „ „ 52, after *in* insert *the*.

„ 272 b „ 39, for *other* read *others*.

„ 281 a „ 6 from bottom, for *h, g, read H, g*.

„ 281 b „ 4, for *writers* read *authors*.

„ 282 b „ 21 for *Bhima* read *Bhimā*.

„ 303 b „ 19 from bottom, for *Atallah* read *Atālah*.

„ „ „ 7 „ „ for *Saadekābād* read *Saadatābād*.

„ 311 a „ 7, for *A.H. 10* read *A.H. 110*.

„ 316 a „ 10, *dele* No. 37.

„ „ b „ 14 „ „ 38.

„ „ „ 19 „ „ 5.

„ 339 b „ 1, for *to* read *and*.

„ „ „ 10 for *Sagargadh* read *Sāgargadh*.

„ „ „ 2 from bottom, for *J halner* read *Thalner*.

„ „ „ 16, for *Pudreśvara* read *Rudreśvara*.

„ 340 a, note *, l. 4, for *Aceridotheres* read *Aceridotheres* (also in the Index).

„ „ b „ 7, for *Jusan* read *Tūran*.

„ 350 b, l. 10, for *son of &c.* read *descendant of H. E. Kuṭb-allaṭṭāb Sayyid Muhammad Bukhārī [d. A.H. 791]*.

„ „ „ 13, for *son of &c.* read *descendant of H. E. Imām Hasan &c. [A.H. 39]*.

„ „ „ 14, 15, for *in reality a Shaikh &c.* read *for the merit of the Shaikh of the faith, Ma'rūf of Karkhi — [Karkhi is a mahallah in Baghdād]*.

„ 358 a, l. 31, for *Kālbādevi*, read *Kālbādevi*.

„ 359 a „ 6, for *of Mambādevi*, read *of Mambādevi*.

„ „ „ 38, for *Paḷsis*, read *Paḷsis*.

THE INDIAN ANTIQUARY,

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A TRANSLATION OF THE NĪTISĀTAKAM, OR HUNDRED VERSES
ON ETHICS AND POLITICS, BY BHARTRIHARI.

BY PROF. C. H. TAWNEY, M.A., CALCUTTA.

THE following translation* is made from the recent edition of Bhartrihari's *Nītisātakam* and *Vairāgyasātakam* by Kāshināth Trimbak Telang, M.A., LL.B.† In the introduction prefixed to his edition he maintains "the tradition of king Bhartrihari's full authorship of these works." He then arrives at the conclusion that our author flourished about the close of the first and the beginning of the second century of the Christian era." It is unnecessary to recapitulate his arguments here, as No. XI. of the Bombay Sanskrit Series may be presumed to be in the hands of most readers of the *Antiquary*.

I proceed to extract from Lassen's *Indische Alterthumskunde* (vol. II. p. 1174) some remarks on these poems and their authorship. "The opinion I before expressed, that the date of the composition of the three hundred short poems which by universal tradition are ascribed to Bhartrihari, must be placed before the overthrow of the older Gupta-dynasty,‡ is of course untenable if the passage in which Buddha is represented as a tenth incarnation of Vishnu really formed part of the original collection, but I have already remarked above that the earliest evidence of the reception of Śākya Muni among the incarnations of the Brāhmanic god is

to be found in an inscription of the tenth century, and that the passage in question must therefore be regarded as an interpolation. Another allusion, i.e. to the Purāṇas containing doctrines to which the author attaches no value, cannot help us to fix his date, as we may understand by the expression the older works that passed under that title.§ I base my opinion that the poems in question must be referred to so early a period principally upon their great literary merits, which render them conspicuous among the productions of the Indian muse. They place before us in terse and pithy language the Indian views about the chief aspirations of youth, manhood, and old age, about love, about concerns with things of this world, and about retirement from them into lonely contemplation. They contain a rich store of charming descriptions of lovers and their various states of feeling; of shrewd and pointed remarks about human life, about the worth of virtue and the evils of vice, and of sage reflections on the happiness of ascetics, who in their lonely retirement contemplate all things with indifference. On account of the perfect art with which they are composed, these short poems are worthy of being ranked among the masterpieces of Indian genius. Some

* The Sentences of Bhartrihari have already appeared in more than one European dress. Pet. von Böhlen published a Latin version with a commentary at Berlin in 1833; D. Galanos translated them into Greek under the title of Ἰνδικῶν μεταφράσεων Προδρόμος, published by G. K. Typaldos at Athens, 1845; and H. Fauche gave a French version in 1852.—ED.

† The poems are also to be found in Haberland's *Anthology* (Calcutta, W. Thacker & Co., 1847). This seems to be the edition used by Professor Lassen.

‡ i.e. before the end of the third century after Christ.

§ Of which Lassen supposes the present eighteen Purāṇas to be a refinement.

of them are connected in sense, as the description of the seasons; others form a whole by themselves, and may be most fitly compared to miniature paintings, as presenting to us a complete picture in the narrow frame of one strophe. As to the tradition that their author was *Bhartṛihari*, it probably arose from the circumstance that, according to one story, he is said to have retired to Banāras after he resigned the crown; for the last hundred in the collection of poems attributed to him contain the praises of a contemplative life, and the city of Banāras is mentioned as one in which such a life can be profitably spent; on the other hand, as soon as *Bhartṛihari*'s authorship was generally believed, a strophe in the first hundred in which the faithlessness of women is censured, and a curse is pronounced on them and on the god of love, may well have given rise to the notion that he became disgusted with kingly power on discovering the faithlessness of his wife *Anangasena*,* and abdicated his throne."

Considering the great uncertainty which attaches to Hindu literary history, we may perhaps think it fortunate that there is something like a consensus as to the date of these poems. Whether the author of these *ṛcā* was a king or a sage, a man of the world or a pedant, no one can help endorsing Professor Lassen's opinion of their literary merits. Some of them are characterized by an epigrammatic point and a subacid humour rarely to be met with in Sanskrit literature, and remind us of the best pieces in the Greek Anthology.

FIRST SECTION.

Eternal, Holy Spirit, free from bonds of space and time,
Whose essence is self-knowledge, Thee I call to bless my rhyme.
She whom I worship night and day, she loathes my very sight,
And on my neighbour dotes, who in another takes delight;
A third she in my humble self nothing but good can see:
Now out upon the god of love, and him, and them, and me!

* Lassen observes that the etymology of her name (*host of love*) confirms his view.

† i.e. the elephant.

Easy is a fool to manage, easier still a man of sense,

Brahmā's self is foiled by one of little brains and great pretence.

Snatch a jewel, if it please you, from the tiger's ravening throat;

Cross the ocean, though its billows toss in foam-wreaths round your boat;

Fearless twine an angry cobra like a garland round your head;

But with fools forbear to argue,—better strive to wake the dead.

If you squeeze with might and main,

Oil from sand you may obtain;

If with parching thirst you burn,

Some mirage may serve your turn;

If you wander far and wide,

Rabbits' horns may grace your side;

But you'll never—trust my tale—

Please a headstrong, bumptious fool.

As well attempt to pierce with flowers the diamond of the mine,

As well attempt with honey-drops to sweeten ocean's brine,

As well go hind with lotus-bands the lord of forest herds,†

As strive to lead in wisdom's ways the bad with sugared words.

When the Creator made the dolt,

He left him not without his bolt;

That fool shows best the wise among

Who strokes his beard and holds his tongue.‡

When but a little I had learned, in my own partial eyes

I seemed a perfect Solon and immeasurably wise;

But when a little higher I had climbed in wisdom's school,

The fever-fit was over and I knew myself a fool.

See that *pariah* making off there with a filthy greasy bone,

How he'll mumble and enjoy it when he finds himself alone!

Not if Indra's self reproved him would he blush and leave his treat,

For the mean abhor no meanness if it only yield them meat.

‡ Compare the epigram of Palladas:—

Πᾶς τις ἀπείδετος φρονιμώτατος ἐστὶ σιωπῶν
Τὸν λογὸν ἐγκρύπτων ὡς πᾶτος ἀισχρότατον.

From Heaven to Śiva's head, and thence to
Himālaya's snows,
To India's plain, thence to the main, the sacred
Ganges flows—

A sad descent! but rivers go astray, like fool-
ish men,

From heaven's crown they tumble down, and
never rise again.

Deem him who verse and music scorns
A beast without the tail and horns;
What though he never feed on grass,
I hold him none the less an ass.

Those slaves who neither fast nor give,
Unjust, unthinking, idle live,
Are beasts, though men by right of birth,
Unwieldy burdens, cumbering earth.

I'd sooner live in mountain caves with lions,
bears, and apes,
Than dwell in Indra's heavenly halls with
brainless human shapes.

*(Here ends the section devoted to the censure of
fools.)*

SECOND SECTION.

Here follows the praise of the wise man.

Kings in whose country tuneful bards are found
Naked and starving, though for lore renowned,
Are voted dullards by all men of sense;
Poets are ever lords, though short of pence,
And he who spurns the diamond's flawless ray
Himself degrades, not that he flings away.

Those who possess that treasure which no thief
can take away,

Which, though on suppliants freely spent, in-
creaseth day by day,

A source of inward happiness which shall out-
last the earth—

To them e'en kings should yield the palm, and
own their higher worth.

Scorn not those sages who have scaled the
topmost heights of truth,

Nor seek to bind their might with bands of
straw,

For lotus-strings will never hold in awe

Th' infuriate sovereign of the herd, drunk with
the pride of youth.

Heaven, if the swan deserve no quarter,
May drive him from his lotus-bower,
But cannot take away the power
By which he severs milk from water.*

Neither rings, bright chains, nor bracelets, per-
fumes, flowers, nor well-trimmed hair,
Grace a man like polished language, th' only
jewel he should wear.

Knowledge is man's highest beauty, knowledge
is his hidden treasure,

Chief of earthly blessings, bringing calm con-
tentment, fame, and pleasure;

Friends in foreign lands procuring, love of
mighty princes earning;

Man is but a beast without it: such a glorious
god is Learning.

Better silence far than speaking,

Worse are kinsmen oft than fire,

There's no balm like friendly counsel,

There's no enemy like ire,

Rogues have keener teeth than vipers,

Brains outweigh the miser's hoard,

Better modesty than jewels,

Tuneful lyre than kingly sword.

Ever liberal to kinsmen, to the stranger ever
kind,

Ever stern to evil-doers, ever frank to men of
mind,

Ever loving to the virtuous, ever loyal to the
crown,

Ever brave against his foemen, ever honouring
the gown,

Womankind distrusting ever—such the hero I
would see,—

Such uphold the world in order; without them
'twould cease to be.

What blessings flow from converse with the wise!

All dulness leaves us, truth we learn to prize,

Our hearts expand with consciousness of worth,

Our minds enlarge, our glory fills the earth.

Those bards of passion who unfold

The secrets of the heart,

Their glory never groweth old,

Nor feels Death's fatal dart.

A duteous son, a virtuous wife, a lord to kind-
ness prone,

A loving friend, a kinsman true, a mind of
cheerful tone,

* According to Dr. Kielhorn on the *Paśchātāntara*, I. p. 2, l. 16, it is only the heavenly swans that possess this power.

A handsome shape, a well-filled purse, a soul-illuminated face,

Are theirs on whom great Hari smiles, and sheds peculiar grace.

Abstinence from sin of bloodshed, and from speech of others' wives,

Truth and open-handed largess, love for men of holy lives,

Freedom from desire and avarice,—such the path that leads to bliss,

Path which every sect may travel, and the simple cannot miss.

Cowards shrink from toil and peril,

Vulgar souls attempt and fail;

Men of mettle, nothing daunted,

Persevere till they prevail.

Not to swerve from truth or mercy, not for life to stoop to shame;

From the poor no gifts accepting, nor from men of evil fame;

Lofty faith and proud submission,—who on Fortune's giddy ledge

Firm can tread this path of duty, narrow as the sabre's edge?

(Here ends the section devoted to the praise of the wise man.)

THIRD SECTION.

The praise of self-respect and valour.

Worn with hunger, faint and feeble, shorn of glory and of power,

Still the king of beasts is kingly, even to his dying hour;

Will he graze on hay like oxen? No, he longs to meet once more

Tusk-armed elephants in battle, and to drink their spouting gore.

Fling a dry and gristly cow's-bone* to a low-bred cur to gnaw,

Straight he wags his tail delighted, though it cannot fill his maw.

Lions spare the prostrate jackal, but the forest-monarchs smite,

E'en by fortune pressed the valiant scorns to waive his proper right.

* The poet's meaning certainly is that a special impurity attaches to eating the flesh of the cow. Bâhu Rājendra Lāla Mitra has shown that this notion is of very recent origin. In fact it did not prevail in the time of Bhavabhūti, who is generally placed in the eighth

Dogs fawn on those who bring them meat, And grovel whimpering at their feet

With upturned throat, and wag their tails in gamesome mood,

But the huge elephant erect

Bates not one jot of self-respect,

And after thousand coaxings deigns to taste his food.

In this revolving world the dead

Are ever born again,

But he is truly born whose race

By him doth praise attain.

Two paths are open to the proud,

As to the woodland flowers,

Which flourish high above the crowd,

Or wither in the bowers.

Rāhu spares the lesser planets,

As unworthy of his might,

But he wreaks his lawful vengeance

On the lords of day and night.

On his hood the serpent Śeṣha doth this triple world uphold,

On the broad back of the tortoise he lies stretched in many a fold,

On the ocean's breast the tortoise like a speck eludes the sight:

Who in thought can limit greatness, or set bounds to Nature's might?

Better had the mount Maināka borne the brunt of Indra's ire,

Than thus plunged beneath the ocean severed from his sorrowing sire;†

Though he saved unharmed his pinions from the blazing thunder-stone,

Yet he mourns with all his waters for his self-abandoned throne.

The sun-gem touched by Heaven's rays,

Though void of sense, is all ablaze;

How then can men of spirit brook

A fellow-mortal's scornful look?

A lion's whelp will boldly face th' earth-shaking monarch's rage,

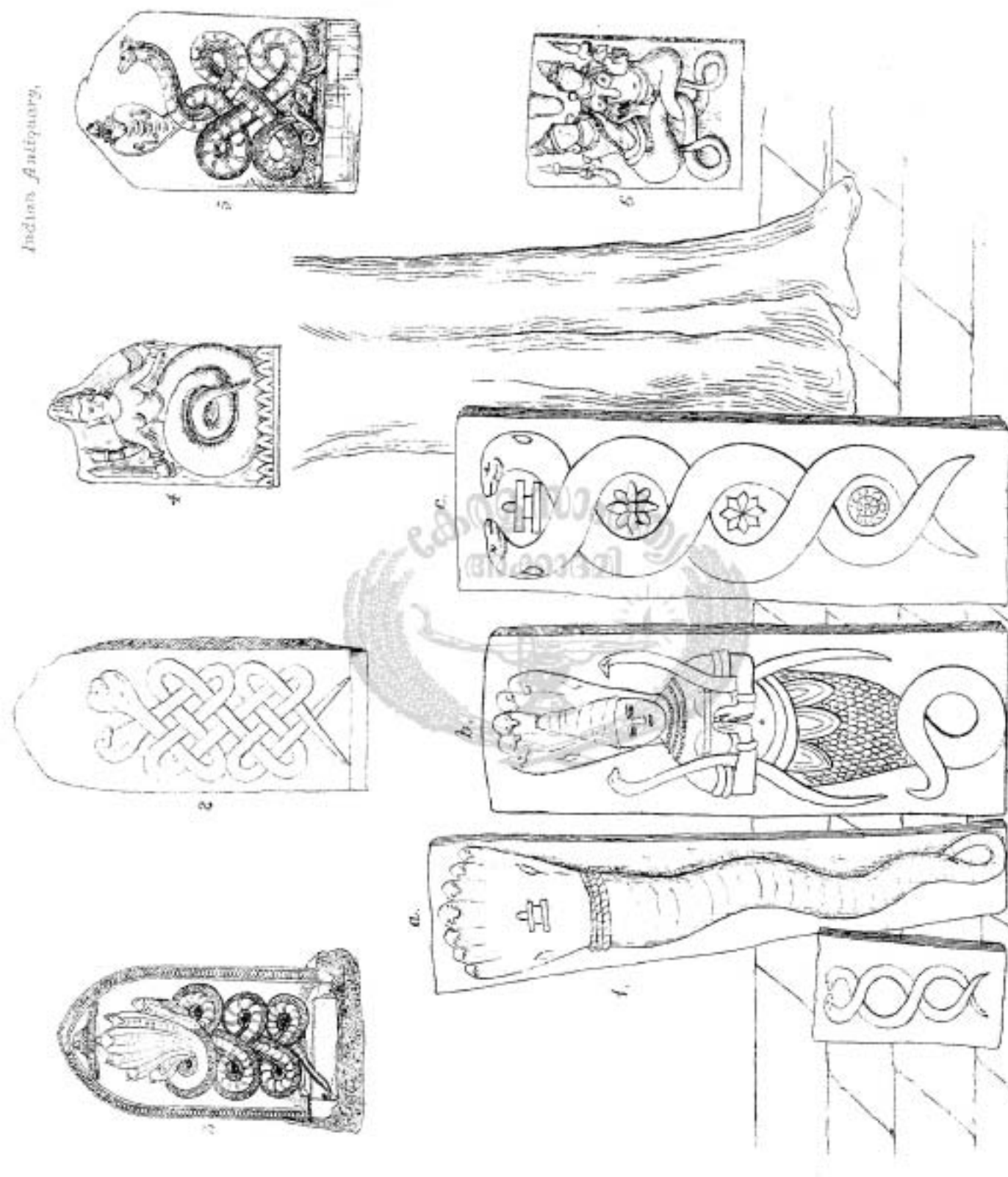
For valour dwells in valorous kind, without regard of age.

(Here ends the praise of self-respect and valour.)

(To be continued.)

century. So that this stanza at any rate must have been composed at a far later date than that assigned by Professor Lassen to the majority of Bhartṛihari's poems.

† Himālaya—his son Maināka was the only mountain that escaped having its wings clipped by Indra.



TREE AND SERPENT WORSHIP.

BY CAPT. J. S. F. MACKENZIE, MAISUR COMMISSION.

Round about Bangalor, more especially towards the Lil Bigh and *Peta*,—as the native town is called,—three or more stones are to be found together, having representations of serpents carved upon them, and of which the accompanying sketch will give some idea. These stones are erected always under the sacred fig-tree by some pious person, whose means and piety determine the care and finish with which they are executed.

Judging from the number of these stones, the worship of the serpent appears to be more prevalent in the Bangalor district than in other parts of the province. I have seen stones like No. 16 in other parts of Maisur, but their appearance would lead one to think that in the present day they are not worshipped, while those in the immediate vicinity of Bangalor are often adorned with saffron, &c. I have been able to learn but little about these stones. No priest is ever in charge of them. There is no objection to men doing so, but, from custom or for some reason—perhaps because the serpent is supposed to confer fertility on barren women—the worshipping of these stones, which takes place during the Gauri feast, is confined to women of all Hindu classes and creeds.

In fig. 1, *a* represents a seven-headed cobra* and is called *Subramanya*. *b*, a female, the lower portion of whose body is that of a snake. She is called *Mudama*, and is the principal and most important figure in the group. *b* represents two serpents entwined, the children of *a*. These three representations are necessary to a complete and orthodox group.

These stones, when properly erected, ought to be on a built-up stone platform facing the rising sun; and under the shade of two *pīpal* (*Ficus religiosa*) trees—a male and female growing together, and walled by ceremonies in every respect the same as in the case of human beings—close by and growing in the same platform a *nimb* (*margosa*) and *bilpatra*† (a kind of wood-apple), which are supposed to be living witnesses of the marriage. The expense of performing the marriage ceremony is too heavy for ordinary persons, and so we generally find only one *pīpal* and a *nimb* on the platform.

By the common people these two are supposed to represent man and wife.

The reason given to me for the *nimb* and *bilpatra* trees being selected as witnesses proves that the Saivite religion is in some manner—and this is farther borne out by the *liṅgam* being engraved on *a* and *b*—connected with this form of tree and serpent worship.

The fruit of the *nimb* and *bilpatra* is the only one which in any way resembles a *liṅgam*, and by placing the fruit of either of these trees on the leaf of the *pīpal*, which represents the *yoni*, you have a fair representation of an entire *liṅgam*.

The custom among Brāhmanas, still acted up to, that under certain circumstances men must marry plants, is curious. If a Brāhman is desirous of taking to himself a third wife, he goes through the marriage ceremony correctly, but abbreviated in details, with a *yeṭṭe gida* (*Acidolobus indica*). This is looked upon as the third marriage; after the ceremony has been completed the *yeṭṭe gida* is cut down and burnt. The man is now free, without fear of evil consequences, to wed the woman who is nominally his fourth wife.

This custom owes its origin not to tree-worship, but to the belief that the number three is an unlucky one. By burning the third wife all bad luck is averted.

It sometimes happens that the elder brother, not having come across a suitable wife, is still unmarried when the younger brother wishes to get married. Before the younger can do so, however, the elder goes through the ceremony of marriage with a plantain tree, which is afterwards cut down, and the younger is then free to wed.

The privileges of chewing betel-nut, wearing flowers in the hair, using sandalwood paste on the body, and tying up the cloth behind in a particular manner, are confined to married men only. By going through the ceremony of marriage with a plantain tree, the unfortunate bachelor who cannot get a wife is entitled to exercise all the coveted privileges.

NOTE BY THE EDITOR.

All over Western and Southern India we find the serpent more or less venerated, and a collec-

* This stone was about 4½ feet high.

† *Crataeva religiosa* P.—Ed.

tion of the sculptured representations of the many forms employed could not fail to be interesting. Sketches of a few varieties of serpent images are given in the *Report on the Archaeological Survey of Western India* for last season; and from these figs. 3, 5, and 6 are taken. Fig. 2 is from a village in the Belgām district; Figs. 3 and 5 are from a photograph of six sculptured stones in the principal temple at Sind-Manauli, on the Mālaprabhī, of which two are carved with nine figures each of Hindu *devas* or gods, seated in a line, and another bears a figure of a single hooded snake, a fourth of a pair—the male with three hoods and the female with one; the fifth (fig. 3) had a single snake with seven heads (one of them broken off) very neatly carved in a compact porphyritic slab,—each head has a crest, and over the whole is the *chattrā* or umbrella, emblematic of sovereignty; the sixth (fig. 5) has a pair of crested snakes, the male only with its hood expanded. No. 4 is from a stone at Aihellī or Aiwāllī,* further down the same river, in the Dhārwaḍ zillā; and No. 6 is from the door-jamb of a deserted temple at Hūlī, not far from Manauli.

At Thān, in Kāthiawād, is a temple of 'Bāshanji,' as Śeṣha Nārāyaṇa is locally called. The principal image is a three-headed cobra with two smaller monocephalous ones—one on each side—carved on the same slab. To the spectator's right of them is a figure of Viṣṇu in the human form, with four arms; while on, and in front of the altar on which the images are placed are *śaṭgrāmas* and *śankh* shells. A common votive offering at this shrine seems to be a representation of the three snakes in alto-relievo on a flat earthenware tile. Near the same town is a shrine of Bāndiā Nāga,† where there is an image but no temple. As snake-worship prevails among the Kāthīs, similar shrines are doubtless to be met with in many places throughout the peninsula; and an account of the

traditions, beliefs, and rites connected with them would be specially interesting.

The following notice of the worship of the living serpent is given by Dr. Cornish, in the *Report of the Census of the Madras Presidency*, 1871 (vol. I. pp. 105-6):—"In many places," he says, "the living serpent is to this day sought out and propitiated. About two years ago, at Rājamandri, I came upon an old ant-hill by the side of a public road, on which was placed a modern stone representation of a cobra, and the ground all around was stuck over with pieces of wood carved very rudely in the shape of a snake. These were the offerings left by devotees, at the abode taken up by an old snake, who occasionally would come out of his hole, and feast on the milk, eggs, and ghee left for him by his adorers.

"Around this place I saw many women who had come to make their prayers at the shrine. If they chanced to see the cobra, I was assured that the omen was to be interpreted favourably, and that their prayers for progeny would be granted. There is a place also near Vaisarpadi, close to Madras, in which the worship of the living snake draws crowds of votaries, who make holiday excursions to the temple (generally on Sundays) in the hope of seeing the snakes which are preserved in the temple grounds; and probably so long as the desire of offspring is a leading characteristic of the Indian people, so long will the worship of the serpent, or of snake-stones, be a popular cult. In all probability the snake-stones were originally set up in commemoration of a living snake, formerly tenanted the spot. In most places the stones are to be counted by the dozen, or score; and, judging from the modern practice, as I saw it myself at Rājamandri, they were probably set up in fulfilment of vows, and in remembrance of blessings flowing to the donors through snake-worship."

PERSIAN INSCRIPTIONS FROM BELGĀM, SĀMPGĀM, GULBARGA, AND SIDDHAPUR.

BY H. BLOCHMANN, M.A., CALCUTTA MADRASAH.

Mr. Burgess some time ago sent me tracings of several Muhammadan inscriptions at Belgām, Sāmpgām, Gulbarga, and Siddhapur. I now give my readings and translations.

1. The inscription from the Sāmpgām‡ Mosque is of no interest. It only contains three Qorān verses, viz. *Sūrah* LXI. 13, XII. 64, and VI. 161.

* *Ante*, p. 308.

† See *Ind. Ant.* vol. I. p. 7.

‡ Sāmpgām is a village to the south-east of Belgām.

2. One of the Belg'm inscriptions refers to the rebuilding of the south-east wall of the Fort of that place in the A.H. 1043, or A.D. 1633-34.

یا فتاح
ز باران فتاده حصار از زمین
به بستند مضبوط اورا متین
شده مستعد از سرو پا تمام
بهنگام عبدالحمید مبین
نوشته حسابی ز تاریخ هجرت
سنه الف و سه دان در اربعین
گنبد عبدالعزیز

O Opener! The Fort having been destroyed by the rains, it was again made strong and firm. It was entirely renovated at the time of 'Abdul Husain, the powerful. A reckoning according to the date of the Hijrah was written down: know it to be the year 1043.* Written by 'Abdul 'Aziz.

The metre is *Matqarib*; but the 5th hemistich alone is *sâlim*.

3. In the N.E. wall of Belg'm Fort, Mr. Burgess found another inscription, of which he has sent me a photograph. It consists of three distichs, Rubâ'i metre; but the third hemistich contains one syllable too much.

The inscription shows that the foundation of the walls was laid in A. H. 937, or A. D. 1530-31, by Ya'qûb 'Alî Khân.

یعقوب علیخان که ازو دلشادست
وز مرحمتش خانه جان آبادست
دیوار حصار را اساس از استحکام
چون سد سکندری قوی بنهادست
تاریخ مرتب شدنش گفت دبیر
دیوار قوی تر ز همه جانیادست

Ya'qûb 'Alî Khân, who is a joy to the heart, and by whose benevolence the house of the soul is prosperous, laid the foundation of the wall of the Fort in strength, firm like the wall of Alexander. The date of its being built was expressed by a sage in the words 'a rather strong wall,' as has been mentioned by all people.

The date lies in the words *dîcâr i qavîlar*,

which give 937 A. H. The connected writing *dîcâr* and *jânyâd* in the first and last hemistichs is unusual.†

4. The fourth is a photograph of an inscription from Gulbarga, halfway up the bastion, where the great gun lies.

این برج طوب دوازده گزی در عهد ابراهیم
ابراهیم عادل شاه خلد ملکه ادا عمارت کرد
برو ملک و ملک صندل سنه ۱۰۳۴
ل سن

This bastion of the 12-gaz Gun† was erected in the reign of Abul Muzaffar Ibrahim 'Adilshâh by Barah Malik and Malik Sandul,§ in 1034 [A.D. 1624-25].

The spelling *طوب* for *توب* is rather unusual. The three letters *و*, *س*, and *ل* below the final words fill up a vacant space, but have no meaning.

5. The fifth inscription was discovered by Mr. Burgess in 1863 on a ruined Wâv, or well, at Siddhapur, and is mentioned by him in his *Notes of a Visit to Gujardt*, p. 72. His tracing enables me to give a correct reading and translation:—

والله أكبر

بنای این بای در حین که قصبه ست پور
بجایگزین سلاله اعظم میرزا محمد انور ولد
نواب مستطاب اعظم خان بود باهتمام حاجی
اسمعیل الشریف بن حاجی بختیار در ماه رمضان
البارک سنه ۱۰۱۰ هزار و ده بختیرت مرتب
گشت و علی الله قصد السبیل و منها جائز بعلیضا
مکملینا کشفروط قیونس از رفیطونس یونسوس
واسم کلهم قطیر

کاتبه لطف الله

God is Great!

The building of this Bâi (well) was successfully completed in the time when the town of Sitpûr was the jâgir of the scion of nobility Mirzâ Muhammad Anwar, son of the excellent Nascâb A'zam Khân, under the superintendence of Hâjî Ismâ'il al-Sharîf, son of Hâjî Bakhtiyâr, in the blessed month of Ramazân 1010 [April 1601 A.D.]. And with God rests the guidance to the right road, although there are that deviate from it [Qorân, XVI. 9].

* A.D. 1633-34. Mr. Stokes only alludes to this inscription, but gives the date as A.D. 1640. See *Historical Account of the Belg'm District*, by H. J. Stokes, M.C.S., p. 40.—Ed.

† From this inscription Mr. Stokes infers "that the wall was completed nineteen years after Asad Khân first got possession of Belg'm, if, as I believe, this stone com-

memorates its completion." (*Historical Account*, ut sup., p. 25.)—Ed.

‡ This has reference to the huge brass gun which still lies close by.—Ed.

§ The names of the builders are such as are given to Eunuchs and Hainshâs.

Yamlikhâ, Maksalmîad, Kashfât, Tabyînus, Azarfayûnus, Yawînîshîs, and the name of their dog is Qifmîr.

The writer is Lutfallah.

Nawâb A'zam Khân is better known under his full name, Khân i A'zam Mirzâ 'Azîz Kokah, of whom the reader will find a biographical note in my *Âin* (translation, p. 325). He was long employed in Gujarât. Mirzâ Muhammad Anwar was his fifth son (*Âin*, p. 328). Mr. Burgess also ascribes the digging or repair of the Khân Sarowar near Patan to Anwar's father (*Visit to Gujarât*, p. 91).

The names Yamlikhâ, &c., in the end of the inscription are the names of the *Ashâb i Kabf*,

'the Lords of the cave,' who form the subject of the xviiith *sûrah* of the *Qurân*. The 'Lords of the Cave' are well known to us under the name of "the Seven Sleepers." The origin of the legend is given in Gibbon's *History*, chap. lxxiii (end of vol. III., Bohn's edition).*

The dog Qifmîr, was with the seven in the cave, and is much respected by Muhammadans. Sa'dî mentions him in the *Gulistan*; and his name and those of his masters are often written on amulets as a powerful protection against loss or destruction. Hence the occurrence of their names in this inscription, which served both as a historical record and as a talisman.

MALIFATTAN.

BY COL. H. YULE, C.B., PALERMO.

My friend Mr. Burnell, in his *Essay on the Pahlavi Inscriptions of S. India*, has incidentally expressed an opinion that the town of Mayilappûr, or San Thomè, is the Malifattan of some of the Muhammadan medical writers.†

Though I have often tried, I have never been able to arrive at any satisfactory conclusion on this point; and Mr. Burnell's view is perhaps expressed too positively. I will here put down all the data known to me.

First as to the old name of San Thomè.—The present form Mayilappûr is, I imagine, accommodated to the long-popular etymology 'Peacock-Town.' Mr. Burnell thinks the proper name was probably Malaippuram, 'Mount-Town.'

Marco Polo gives no name to the city. He calls it a certain little town having no great population, and frequented by few traders. Neither is any name given to it by Friar John of Monte Corvino, afterwards Archbishop of Cambaluc, who, on his way to China (circa 1292-93), spent some time in the vicinity and buried a comrade, Fr. Nicolas of Pistoia, in the Church of St. Thomas. The first traveller, as far as I know, to name the place, is John Marignolli, about the middle of the 14th century, who calls it Mirapolis, but who had, I suspect, heard the peacock etymology, for he mentions the peacocks particularly in connexion with the legend of the

Apostle's death. The Catalan Map, executed about 1375, gives Mirapor. Nicolo Conti, according to different readings, Malpuria, Malpulîn, and Malepor. Barbosa, soon after 1500, has Maylapur, Mailapur, and Malepur; with De Barros, Couto, and the Portuguese of their age, it takes the form Meliapor. In Fra Paolino, again, we find "Mailapuri, or Mailapuram,—City of Peacocks."

Then for Malifattan. This is mentioned by Rashiduddin, in his notices of Malabar, as one of the ports belonging to Sundar Pandi Devar,—"*Fattan, Malifattan, and Kayal*," as well as in Wassaf's edition of the same notices.‡ And Abulfeda names Manifattan, probably the same place, as a city on the coast of Malabar.

Other notices seem very rare. That of Friar Jordanus, who was a Catholic Missionary in Western and South India, and on his return to Europe was named by the Pope Bishop of Columbum or Quilon in 1328, is remarkable. Naming the kingdoms of India that he was acquainted with after Molebar, where the pepper grows, comes Singuyli (or Cranganore), and then Columbum, "the king of which is called Lingua, but his kingdom Mohebar.§ There is also the king of Molephatam, whose kingdom is called Molepor, where pearls are taken

* Conf. *Fundgruben des Orients*, III. 347-381.

† Ind. Ant. vol. III. p. 318.

‡ See Dowson's *Elliot*, vol. I. p. 69, and III. p. 32, disregarding erroneous readings.

§ I will not digress on this curious and perplexing statement.

in infinite quantities." The name re-appears in the Papal records in connexion with the nomination of Jordanus, the Pope in two letters commending the new Bishop to the Christians of Columbam, and "to the whole body of Christian people dwelling in Molephatam."*

The only other notice that I can find is in the interesting memoranda of Joseph the Indian of Cranganore (circa 1500) published in the *Novus Orbis*. After noticing the former trade of the Chinese (incolae Catálii) with Calicut, and their abandonment of that port on account of the king's ill-treatment of them, he goes on: "Post hoc adivere urbem Mailapetam, quae urbs paret regi Narsindo; regio respicit orientem, et distat ab Indo flumine milliaribus xc. Ibi nunc sua exercent mercimonia."

The statement about the Indus is perplexing,† but the eastern aspect, and the subjection to the Narsingha, or king of Vijayanagar, show that the place was on the Coromandel coast. Joseph, however, does not mean St. Thomas's, for in another passage he speaks of that as Milapar, "urbs . . . quæ instar promontorium in mare prominet." This, and the mention of the pearl-fishery by Friar Jordanus, are considerable obstacles to the identification of the two places, though the Molepor of Jordanus seems in favour of that identification.

Is there any evidence that Mailápûr was frequented by the Chinese traders? Ritter cites the name Chinapatam, applied to Madras, as a trace of ancient Chinese traffic there. I have elsewhere objected to this statement (quoted from J. T. Wheeler)‡ that the name in question, properly Chennapattan or Chennapattan, was bestowed on the site granted to the English in 1639 by the Naik of Chinglepat, in honour of that chief's father-in-law, Chennapa by name. But this may not be conclusive; for the Naik may have only modified an existing name, as often happens. And De Barros says§: "Though the greatness which the city of Meliapor possessed in those (ancient) days had, by the time our people arrived, become almost annihilated by the wars that occurred in the time of the Chinese, who had held in that place their

principal settlements,—of which we see traces to this day in their great edifices."—This seems at any rate to imply traditions of Chinese frequenting Mailápûr. Barbosa also tells a story of Chinese in connexion with the tomb of St. Thomas.

Chinese coins have been found on the beach, I believe, at various points down the coast as far as Kâyal, both by Col. Mackenzie's people and by Sir Walter Elliot's; but what De Barros says of buildings left by the Chinese warns us to recall the confusion which has taken place in some instances certainly, between Chinas and Jainas. This is particularly the case, as Dr. Caldwell has pointed out to me, with regard to the famous China Pagoda of Negapatam, the destruction of which, I may observe, has been variously ascribed to the Railway Company and to the Jesuit College there—"Palman qui meruit ferat!" I trust at least it was not the Public Works Department!

My own impression has always been that Malifattan was to be sought further south than Madras, but the only map on which I could ever trace such a name is one in the *Lettres Edifiantes* (Recueil XV.) representing the southern part of the Coromandel coast. In this Malipatan appears in Palk's Bay north of Ramiswaram, about the position of Tondel—scarcely a possible place, I imagine, for a seaport frequented by foreign trade.

I have generally found my ideas recur to Negapatam as the most probable locality. Dr. Caldwell mentions that the Jaina Tower aforesaid was sometimes called the "Tower of the Malla." Is it possible that Negapatam, so long one of the most frequented ports on the coast, was ever called Mallapattan? The three names "Fattan, Malifattan, and Kâyal" would then be in proper order, Fattan representing Kâvêripattan (as Mr. Burnell confirms), Malifattan—Negapatam, and Kâyal of course Kâyal at the mouth of the Tamraparni. Further, is not Negapatam the city which is sometimes called the "city of Coromandel," marking it as the place on the coast which foreigners recognized as the great place of traffic, just as old geographers give us the city of

* Od. Raynaldi, *Annales Ecclesiast.* An. 1330. iv.

† From another passage he would seem by Indus to mean Ganges. Possibly he was shown a map founded on Fra Mauro's, in which the Indus does take the place of the Ganges.

‡ Ritter, V. 518, 620; Wheeler's *Madras in the Olden Time*, I. p. 23; *Cathay*, &c. p. lxxvi.

§ Dec. III. liv. II. cap. i.

|| The Missionary's map just alluded to presents Cael in its proper position.

Bengala? Thus Varthema's "city of Chormandel" must be Negapatam, as Dr. Badger points out, unless indeed it be a fiction altogether.* A less suspicious authority is a Report from Mynheer Ryklof van Goens to the (Dutch) Governor-General in Council, dated September 1675, of which an immense extract is given by Valentyn (vol. V., *Ceylon*, pp. 204 *seqq.*). This speaks of the city which the Portuguese had built and fortified upon the site of "the old Gontoo city of Chiormandelan," and how it had pro-

pered, not only in coasting trade, but in the groote Zeevaart with Tenasserim, Achin, Malacca, Cambodia, Siam, Johore, and above all with China." I do not see what place this could well be, except Negapatam,† although that name is not mentioned in connexion with it, and does occur incidentally in the following page of the Report.

Some reader of the *Indian Antiquary* may be able to speak with more precise knowledge on the subject.

SANTHĀLI FOLKLORE.

BY REV. F. T. COLE, TALJHARI, RAJMAHĀL.

Toria the Goatherd and the Daughter of the Sun.

Once upon a time there was a certain shepherd named Toria, who fed his goats on the banks of a river. Now it happened that the daughters of the Sun used to descend from heaven by means of a spider's web every day to bathe in this river. Seeing Toria there, they wanted him also to bathe with them. After they had finished their ablutions and anointed themselves with *haldi* and oil, they again ascended to their heavenly abode; whilst Toria went to look after his flock.

Toria, having formed a pleasant acquaintance with the daughters of the Sun, by degrees became enamoured of one of them. How to obtain such a fair creature he was at a loss to know. However, one day when these maidens said to him "Come along and bathe with us," he suddenly thought upon a plan, namely, that when they had laid their *sūphās* (upper garments) down, he would seize hers and run off with it. So he said to them "Let us see who can keep under water the longest;" and at a given signal they all dived, but very soon Toria raised his head above water and, cautiously observing that no one was looking, he hastened out of the water, took the maiden's *sūphā*, and was in the act of carrying it away, when the others raised their heads above water.

The girl ran after him, begging him to return her garment, but Toria did not stop till he had reached his home. When she arrived he gave her her *sūphā* and said to her "Now you may return." Seeing such a fair and noble creature before him, for very bashfulness he could not

open his mouth to ask her to be his wife; so he simply said "Now you may go." But she replied "No, I will not return; my sisters by this time will have gone home; I will stay with you, and be your wife." All the time this was going on, a parrot, whom Toria had taught to speak, kept on flying about the heavens, calling out to the Sun "O great Father, do not look downwards." In consequence of this the Sun did not see what was happening on earth to his daughter.

This maiden was very different from the women of the country,—she was half human, half divine,—so that when a beggar once came to the house and saw her, his eyes were dazzled just as if he had stared at the sun.

It happened that this very beggar in the course of his travels came to the king's palace, and having seen the queen (who was thought by all to be the most beautiful of women), he said to the king "The shepherd Toria's wife is much more beautiful than your queen. If you were to see her, you would be enchanted." The king said to the beggar "How shall I be able to see her?" The beggar answered "Put on old clothes, and travel in disguise." The king did so, and having arrived at the house asked alms. Toria's wife came out of the house and gave him food and water, but for very astonishment at seeing her great beauty he was unable to eat. His only thought was "How can I manage to make her my queen?" He then went home, and after thinking over many plans at length decided upon one. He

* *Travels of Lud. Varthema*, Hak. Soc. 1853, p. 183.

† Or Nagore? But I cannot learn if this port is a place of antiquity.

said "I will cause Toria to dig a large tank with his own hands, and if he does not perform his task, then I will kill him, and seize his wife." Having summoned Toria to his palace, he commanded him to dig a large tank, and fill it with water in one night; and said "If you fail to do it, I will have you put to death."

Toria, having heard the king's command, slowly and sorrowfully returned home. His wife, noticing his sad countenance, said to him "What makes you so sad to-day?" He replied "The king has ordered me to dig a large tank, to fill it with water, and also to make trees grow on its banks, during the course of a single night." Toria's wife said to him "Cheer up, do not be dispirited. Take your spade and mix a little water with the sand, where the tank is to be, and then it will form by itself." Toria did so, and the tank was found completed. The king, being greatly astonished, could not accomplish his purpose of killing Toria.

Some time afterwards, the king planted a very large plain with mustard seed: when fit for reaping, he commanded Toria to reap and gather the produce into one heap on a certain day; if not, he would order him to be put to death. Toria, hearing this, was again very sad. His wife, seeing him in this state, asked him the reason. He told her all that the king had said to him. She replied "Do not be sad about this, it shall be performed." So the daughter of the Sun summoned her children the doves; they came in large numbers, and in the space of one hour carried the produce away in their beaks to the king's threshing-floor. Again Toria was saved through the wisdom of his wife. However, the king determined not to be outdone, so he arranged a great hunt. On the day fixed he assembled his retainers, and a large number of beaters and provision-carriers, and set out for the jungle. Amongst these latter, Toria was employed to carry eggs and water. The object of the hunt was not to kill tigers and bears, but to kill Toria, so that the king might seize the daughter of the Sun, and make her his wife.

Having come to a cave, they said that a hare had fled for refuge into it. With this pretext they seized Toria and forced him into the cave; then, rolling large stones to the door completely blocked up the entrance; then they gathered large

quantities of brushwood to the mouth of the cave, and set fire to it, to smother Toria. Having done this, they returned home, boasting that they had at last done for the troublesome shepherd. But Toria broke the eggs, and all the ashes were scattered; then he poured the water that he had with him on the remaining embers, and the fire was extinguished. With great difficulty Toria managed to crawl out of the cave; when, to his great astonishment, he saw that all the white ashes of the fire were becoming cows, whilst the half-consumed wood became buffaloes. Having collected them, he drove them home. When the king saw these, he became very envious, and asked Toria from whence he procured them. The shepherd replied "From that cave into which you pushed me. I have not got very many; for I was alone, and therefore could not manage to drive more away. If you and all your retainers go, you will be able to get as many as you want. But to procure them it is necessary to close the door of the cave, and light a fire in front, as you did for me." The king said "Very well, I and my people will enter the cave, and, as you have sufficient oxen and cows, be pleased not to go in with us, but kindle the fire for us."

The king and his people then entered the cave. Toria blocked up the doorway with great exertion, and then lighted a large fire at the entrance. Very soon all that were in the cave were suffocated.

Some days after this occurrence the daughter of the Sun said to her husband "I intend to visit my father's house." Toria said to her "Very well, I will also go with you." She answered "It is very foolish of you to think of such a thing, you will not be able to reach where I am going." Toria replied "If you are able to go, surely I can." She said "Very well, come along then." After travelling a long distance, Toria became so faint that he could proceed no further. His wife said to him "Did not I warn you not to attempt such a journey? As for quenching your thirst, there is no water to be found here. But sit down, I will see if I can find some for you." But when she was gone, impelled by his great thirst, Toria sucked a raw egg that he had brought with him. No sooner had he done this than he became changed into a fowl. Soon after, Toria's wife came back bringing water, but Toria was not to be found

anywhere; but, sitting where she had left him, a solitary fowl was to be seen. Taking the creature up in her arms, she pursued her journey alone. At length she reached her father's house, and amongst the many questions asked her was "Where is your husband Toria?" She replied "I don't know; I left him for a while till I went to fetch water, and when I returned he

was not to be seen. Perhaps he will soon arrive; he must be on the road."

Her sisters seeing the fowl, thought that it would make them a good meal. So, in the absence of Toria's wife, they killed and ate it. Some time afterwards they again inquired of her as to her husband; she replied "Perhaps you have eaten him!"

ARCHÆOLOGICAL NOTES.*

BY M. J. WALHOUSE, LATE M.C.S.

I.—*Miniature and Pre-historic Pottery.*

In the megalithic chambered graves in Coorg it is not unusual to meet with complete sets of pottery of the forms commonly found in them, but all in miniature, giving the idea of toy-pottery. Similar tiny vessels are said to have been found in such tombs in other provinces, but I cannot just now find a reference to any instances. In Koimbatur and southern districts I have often found various small vessels, but cannot say they were so small as to be evidently miniature, or smaller indeed than some occasionally now in use. At page 479 of *Rude Stone Monuments*, Mr. Fergusson, remarking upon the little box-like sham kistvaens formed at the present day by the mountain tribes of Travancore on occasions of death, observes, "The people having lost the power of erecting such huge structures as abound in their hills† and on the plains around, from which they may have been driven at some early period, are content still to keep up the traditions of a primeval usage by these miniature shams. There seems little doubt that this is the case, and it is especially interesting to have observed it here, as it accounts for what has often puzzled Indian antiquaries. In Coorg and elsewhere, miniature urns and miniature utensils, such as one sees used as toys in European nurseries, are often found in these tombs, and have given rise to a tradition among the natives that they belong to a race of pigmies; whereas it is evident that it is only a dying out of an ancient faith, when, as is so generally the case, the symbol supersedes the reality."

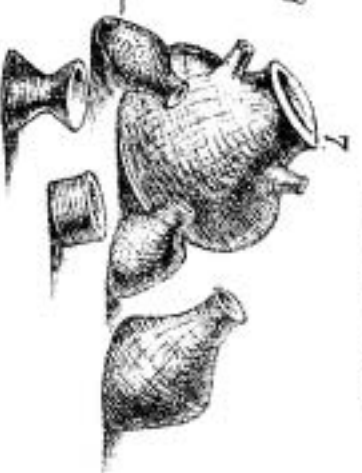
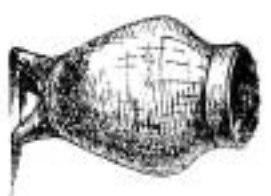
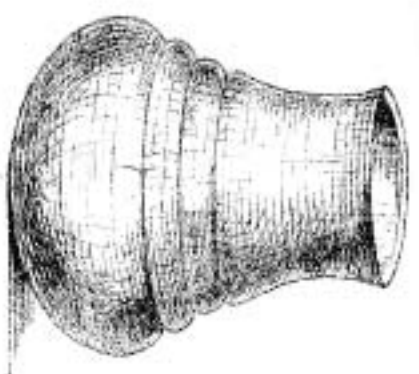
The difference drawn in the foregoing passage

at first sight seems natural, but on consideration there are some points that require clearing up. If miniature vessels were found in miniature tombs, the hypothesis would be very strong; but they are found in the huge megalithic primeval structures, built when the faith, whatever it was, that dictated them, must have been in full life, and which also abound with pottery of the ordinary size. The question then arises, Why, if sepulchres of the full dimensions could be formed, should miniature vessels have been put in them? It seems also questionable whether it could have been done for cheapness' sake. Ancient nations have often entombed valuable things with their dead, and as the feeling and custom relaxed have ceased to bury the real valuables, and supplied their place with cheap imitations, as the Chinese to-day are said to make sham vessels and precious objects on gold and silver paper and burn before their ancestors' shrines. There may be an analogy between such customs and the use of the miniature pottery, but it is noteworthy that whereas nothing can be cheaper and more abundant than pottery of the common size, which also occurs profusely in the tombs, it seems probable that miniature ware, expressly made for the purpose, would be more troublesome and dearer to make, and, though possible, it seems difficult to imagine it could have been used for that reason.

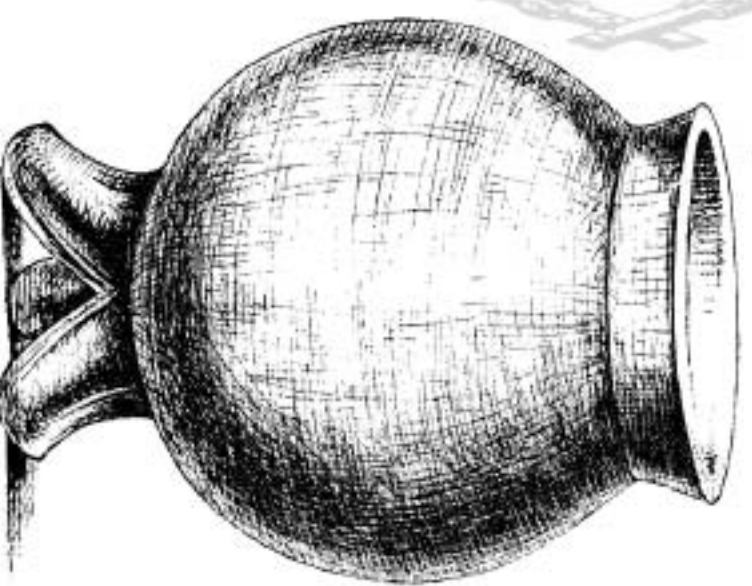
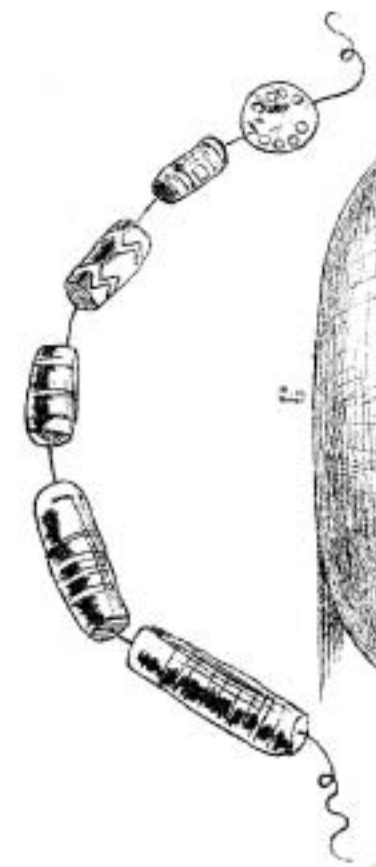
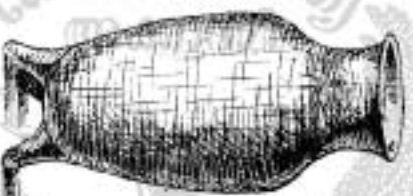
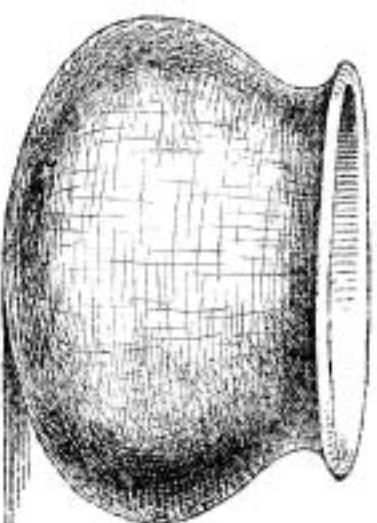
Hence upon the whole question there seems room for doubt whether the Coorg vessels really were miniature, or intended to be so; they are not smaller than many tea and coffee cups, especially such as are used by several Eastern nations, and I have seen clay and metal vessels almost as small amongst the various Hindu castes,

* Continued from vol. III. p. 278.

† They still number some thousands, and it seems curious that they should have lost the power, when the people of the Khāsī Hills, in no wise physically their superiors, are said by Mr. Fergusson (p. 405) to move and erect the great stones, which cover their hills, with perfect facility.



8



especially Brāhmanas. Mr. Fergusson says that miniature utensils have been also found with them, which would certainly strengthen his view; but I have not met with any myself, and indeed the custom appears to have been more or less local. I think Mr. Fergusson is mistaken in supposing that this tiny earthenware suggested to the natives the idea that the tombs belonged to a race of pigmies, but that it arose, as I have always gathered from the natives, from the holes or apertures so generally occurring in the slabs at one end of the structures, and which are regarded as doors or entrances to what are popularly called houses, for the natives have no idea of their being sepulchres.*

In the accompanying plate the figures marked 1, 2, 3, and 4 are examples of the miniature ware, of the actual sizes of the originals. 1, 2, and 3 are formed of a rather dark-coloured clay, and were found placed one upon the other, the middle vessel, No. 2, containing the incised beads figured below; these are of red carnelian, with ornamental bands and spots scratched upon them in white; they are bored, too, showing that the cairn-builders understood how to work these very hard pebbles, and they are exactly similar to carnelian beads found in English barrows. No. 4 is formed of red clay with particles of mica intermixed, and is supported on three short feet.

Nos. 5, 5 delineate a very characteristic form of a tall urn or jar, standing upon three, and sometimes four short legs. This form occurs not only in Coorg, but wherever kistvaens are found throughout Southern India. I have frequently disinterred it in the Koimbatour and

Salem districts. These urns vary from one to three feet in height, are made of red clay, very strong and close-framed, and usually contain fragments of bones and ashes. The legs or feet on which they stand present a feature of obvious usefulness that has quite vanished from modern Hindu pottery, so far as I know, all *chāffis* and pots used to-day† being round-bottomed and troublesome to steady. Footless pots are also common enough in the caïns, but with them are always found large quantities of earthen stands (figure 8) on which to place them, but no such devices are in use now.

No. 7, with its two curious spouts, would seem to intimate that distilling in some shape was known to the people who made it; and No. 6 may be remarked as presenting a shape very similar to some pottery in the Indian Museum from the ancient city of Brāhmanābād, in Sindh. This is interesting because, with the exception of the pottery from the megalithic tombs, this from Brāhmanābād, to which the date A.D. 700 appears to be ascribed, is probably the most ancient Indian earthenware of which any examples survive, and forms a link between pre-historic and modern pottery. Amongst the Brāhmanābād specimens there are urns the same in shape with figures 5, 5 in the plate, but *without* the legs, and standing instead on a flat-rimmed bottom, like a slop-basin; and there are small vases with the large halves just like figure 6, but with narrower necks and mouths. Two or three small vases with single high loop-handles manifest in design a Greek influence widely removed from any Hindu fashion.

NOTES ON HINDU CHRONOGRAMS.

BY G. H. DAMANT, B.A., B.C.S., RANGPUR.

In Sanskrit as in Masalmān inscriptions the date is often expressed by words, but, contrary to the usage of the Muhammadans, amongst whom each letter has a fixed value, the Hindus usually employ a separate word to represent each figure, although a word may occasionally be taken to represent two figures. The date must, as a rule, be read from right to left. In a date I found on a temple at Bordhon Kuti Rangpur, the sentence representing the date is *Yuga-dakana-rasa-kshmd*, which gives the date

1034 (Śaka, as shown by another expression in the inscription); here *kakma*, the earth = 1, *rasa* = 6, the six *rasas* being *madhu*, honey, sweet; *lavaṇa*, salt; *kaṭu*, pungent; *tiṭta*, bitter; *amla*, sour; and *mishṭa*, sweet: *Dakana* = 3, it is a synonym for *Kṛitika*, the third nakshatra; and *yuga* = 4, the four yugas.

The words employed to represent numbers are usually taken from the Hindu system of philosophy, mythology, or very commonly astronomy or astrology (*jyotiṣa*), and in many cases the

* A new theory respecting the use of the hole is advanced in a preceding paper, vol. III. pp. 277, 278.

† In some parts of Western India vessels for holding grain, &c. are still in use with short feet or supports.—Ed.

allusions are very intricate, and difficult to be understood by any person who is not well versed in Jyotisha and the other sciences.

Almost any word which can possibly be construed so as to signify a number may be used in a date. I give a list of some of the words which are most commonly found as substitutes for figures:—

0: Any word signifying "ether," such as *liha*, *gagana*, and *antariksha*.

1: *Bhū*, the earth, and *chandra*, the moon, with their synonyms.

2: *Yugal*, *dvandva*, and such like words.

3: All words meaning *fire*: *Agni* is a synonym for *Kṛitika*, the third nakshatra. *Netra* and other words for "eye:" the reference is to the three eyes of Śiva. *Rāma*, i.e. *Parasurāma*, *Rāmachandra*, and *Bālārāma*.

4: The most common words are *yuga* and *veda*.

5: *Vāṇa* and synonyms, the five arrows of Kāmadeva. *Vaktra*, the five faces of Śiva.

6: *Rīpa* and synonyms, the six being the enemies of man:—*kāma*, lust; *kradha*, passion; *lobha*, covetousness; *moha*, infatuation; *māda*, pride; and *mātsarya*, envy. *Rītu*, the six seasons. *Anga*, the six branches of knowledge derived from the Vedas,—*śiksha*, pronunciation; *chhandas*, prosody; *vyākaraṇa*, grammar; *nirukta*, explanation of obscure terms; *kalpa*, religious rites; and *jyotisha*, astronomy.

7: *Muni* or *Rishi*, the seven great sages. *Dvīpa*, the seven continents.

8: *Tam*, eight supernatural beings. *Gaja*, the eight elephants that support the earth.

9: *Grāha*, the five planets,—Mars, Venus, Mercury, Jupiter, and Saturn, with the sun and moon, *Rāhu* and *Ketu*; *Dvāra*, the nine orifices of the body.

10: *Dīś*, the ten quarters. *Avatāra*, the ten incarnations of Viṣṇu.

11: *Rudra*, the eleven kings of that name.

12: *Māsā*, the 12 months. All words meaning the sun. *Sūrya* is supposed to have been divided into twelve parts by the father of his wife *Suvarṇā*.

For numbers from 1 to 27 the names of the 27 nakshatras may be used. Synonyms may be used in all cases. As a rule, each word is to be taken as the number it represents, and then the

whole expression is to be read backwards; instances may occur in which the different numbers are to be multiplied or added together, but they are certainly very rare, and I have met with none.

The following are ordinary instances of Hindu chronograms:—

Sindhudugdhābhā = 1624.

Sindhu = 4, the four seas on the four sides of the earth—north, south, east, and west, *duga* = 2, *anga* = 6, *bhā* = 1, and the whole read backwards gives 1624.

Again, *Kha-dvandvāṅga-mṛigāṅga*.

Kha = 0, *dvandva* = 2, *anga* = 6, and *mṛigāṅga* (a synonym for *Chandra*) = 1, and the whole gives 1620.

Another date, *Vedāguta-badhārāna* = 1634:—*Veda* = 4, and *vedāguta* means that which precedes *veda*, i.e. 3; *badhāra* is a derivative from *badh*, to destroy, and is a synonym of *ripa* = 6; and signifies *pitar* = 1.

These dates were all taken from inscriptions on temples in Rangpur.

It is usual to add some such expression as *parimita* or *parivāṅkṣya*, "by counting," to signify that the words are intended to represent the date.

The practice does not seem to be one of very great antiquity, and many of the supposed old dates are very doubtful. The instance which Mr. Blochmann quoted in his paper on Muhammadan chronograms* from *Jour. As. Soc. Beng.* Pt. I. 1872, page 310, is admitted in a note by Bābu Rājendralāla Mitra to be incorrect, and not to represent the date at all. Again, in the Dinājpur inscription quoted in *Ind. Ant.* vol. I. page 127, it seems most probable that the words *Kuñjara-ghata-varshena* do not contain the date;† if they do, I cannot help thinking that the interpretation must be 118 if we are to read the date from right to left, according to rule, or 811 if it is to be read from left to right. *Kuñjara* can undoubtedly mean 8; *ghata* means, in its primary sense, a watering-pot, and secondarily the constellation Aquarius, which is the eleventh sign of the Hindu zodiac, and hence the meaning might be 11; but the date 118, of whatever era we take it, is too early. 811 would be a more likely date, but there seems to be no reason for violating the ordinary rule.

* *Ind. Ant.* vol. III. p. 215.

† See also vol. I. pp. 195, 227.

OLD KANARESE LITERATURE.

BY THE REV. P. KITTEL, MERCARA.

(From the Indian Evangelical Review, No. I. pp. 64-9.)

Jaina Literature.

The originators of Kanarese literature are the Jainas, who have cultivated both Sanskrit and the vernaculars of the South. They have not only written from sectarian motives, but also from a love for science, and have reproduced several Sanskrit scientific works in Kanarese. The Sanskrit works date back as far as the beginning of the fourth century A.D. Their great grammarian Hemachandra probably lived in the twelfth century. The oldest Jaina manuscript in Kanarese of which I know was copied A.D. 1428. The saying that its original was composed a thousand years ago may be true.

Some of the scientific Jaina works in Kanarese, all of those in Sanskrit verse, are the following:—

1. Nāgavarma's *Chhandas* or Prosody. His birthplace was Veṭṭi deśa. His work on prosody is the only standard work on that subject known to the Kanarese. It comprises both Sanskrit and Kanarese metres. As his Sanskrit source he mentions only the well-known *Chhandas* of Piṅgala Nāga.

2. Nāgavarma's *Kṛtyāśāloka*, a comprehensive treatise on the rules of Poetry. I have as yet only been able to procure the first and the beginning of the second chapter. The headings of its five chapters are: *Śabda smṛiti*, *Kāvya māla vyakṛiti*, *Guna vīṣa*, *Rīti krama*, *Rasa nīrūpaṇa*.

3. Nāgavarma's *Nighaṇṭu*, a vocabulary based upon Vararuchi, Halāyudha, Bhāguri, and the *Amarakoṣha*. The author gives only here and there the Kanarese meanings of the Sanskrit terms, being often obliged, on account of the metre it appears, to use a generally known Sanskrit one. Halāyudha was a predecessor of Hemachandra, but later than Bhāguri and Amaradatta.

4. Śālva's *Rasaratadhara*, a treatise on poetry and dramatic composition, is professedly based on Nāgavarma, Hemachandra, and others. The text of my manuscript is rather incorrect. Here are a few sentences from its first chapter in an imperfect translation:—

"The action of the mind (*chitta vr̥tti*), the properties (*lakṣaṇa*) of which are constant (*sthāyī*) and inconstant (*vyabhichārī*), and are combined with the pantomimes (*abhinaya*) of amorous passion (*rōga*) and so on, is *Bhāva*. When the actions of the mind arouse the constant affections (*bhāva*) by a playful woman and other such objects as belong to the means of excitement (*uddīpana*) of (or concerning) the real object of affection (*ālambana*, for instance the hero of the piece),

means that are famous in poetical and dramatic works, *Vibhāva* occurs. Farther, when the specialities of the action of the mind, the properties of which are, as stated, constant and inconstant, are perceived by spectators from perceptions (*anubhāva*) of amorous looks, movement of the arms, and so on, *Anubhāva* occurs. By in various ways putting in front and setting in motion (*sañchāra*) death and the other constant ones, *Gyabhichāris* are produced."

"*Bhāva* becomes apparent by the mind (*chitta*); *Rasa* arises from the *Bhāva*; Speech (*vaṇana*) displays this (the *rasa*). *Bhāva* is the action of the mind (*manoh prapatti*); *Vibhāva* specifies the *Rasa* that is born; those that have a sense for beauty (*bhāva*) know and enjoy the *Rasa* which is born of the *bhāva*, and this is *Anubhāva*. The action completely pervaded by the mind wherein the *sthāyī* (constant property) is (still) combined with constancy is natural disposition (*svāta*), and by this (*parichetas*) the *adveika bhāva* is displayed; when it is not constant, it becomes *sañchārī* (or *vyabhichārī*, i.e. inconstant property)."

"The eight constant affections (*sthāyī bhāva*) are: amorous passion (*rati*), mocking (*parihāsa*), grief (*śoka*), effort (*utsāha*), wrath (*prakopa*), astonishment (*vismaya*), fear (*bhaya*), and aversion (*irigṛasā*)."

"The eight natural (spontaneous) affections (*adveika bhāva*) are: horripilation (*pyūṣa*), tears (*āśru*), perspiration (*svēda*), inability to move (*stambha*), mental absorption (*laya*), inarticulate speech (*svara bheda*), tremor (*kampa*), and change of colour (*vaivarāgya*)."

"The appearance-affections (gestures) (*anubhāva*) are: frowning (*bhrikūṭi*), colouring of the face (*mukha rōga*), change in the look of the eyes (*lochana vikṛiti*), tremor of the lower lips (*adhara kampana*), displacing of hands and feet (*kara charaṇa vyāsaka*), and other actions of the members of the body."

"The thirty-three inconstant affections (*vyabhichārībhāva*) are: intelligence (*mati*), shame (*lajjā*), haste (*dvega*), apprehension (*śauṅkā*), death (*maraṇa*), fickleness (*chapaṭatā*), delight (*harṣa*), self-abasement (*nirveda*), indigence (*daiṇya*), recollection (*smṛiti*), loss of presence of mind (*moha*), indolence (*dlasya*)," etc.

"The eight mild condiments (or tastes, *śānta rasa*) are: amorous emotion (*spṛāḡdāra*), mirth (*hāsyā*), tenderness (*harṣa*), heroism (*vr̥a*), anger (*prarandā*), surprise (*adbhūta*), terror (*bhayaṇaka*), and disgust (*bibhāṣa*)."

"As it has been said: 'The pearl of pleasures is woman with her antelope's eyes' (*bhoga-ratnam arigakshi*), the amorous emotion-condiments are of all the condiments (*rasa*) the most pleasing to the world.' The amorous emotion-condiments are, therefore, treated of in the first instance. Herein some mention the tender constant (*sthiya*) attachment-condiment (*sneha-rasa*); it is included in the amorous passion (*rasa*), and so on. Where women are the friends of women, and men those of men, all such friendship too is included in the amorous passion. But the friendship of Rāma and Lakshmana and others is included in the peculiar heroism (*dharma-rasa*). The love of children for mother and father is included in the fear (*bhaya*)," etc.

5. Keśava's or Keśi Rāja's *Śabda Mani Darpana*, or Grammar of the Kanarese language. His father's name was Mallikārjuna. As this is also the name of one of Śiva's Liṅgas, it is no wonder that Liṅgāt books claim the renowned Keśi Rāja to have belonged to the Liṅgāt sect. But would a Liṅgāt poet under any circumstances adduce, for instance, the prayer "Give me abundance of joy, O highest Jinendra!" merely to give an example of a very common form of the vocative, having the choice between this one and hundreds of others? And would he not, once at least, have shown his Liṅgāt (or Śaiva) colour? Besides, his curt language is precisely that of Jaina authors. Keśava's grammar is very valuable, and the only complete one of the Kanarese language in Kanarese (there is also one in Sanskrit) that is authoritative. It deserves to be studied by all that are interested in the Kanarese language.*

6. Devottama's *Nānārtha Ratnākara*, i.e. a collection of Sanskrit words that have various meanings—168 verses in different Sanskrit metres. That the author is a Jaina appears, for instance, from verse 157, in which he states that the word *Paramātma* has three meanings: (1) the state of existence which wants no support (*andakhratā*) (2) Jineśvara; (3) a Siddha.

A few sectarian works of the Jainas are:—

7. Nāgachandra's *Jina Muni Tanaya* (i.e. O son of the Jina Muni"), these being the words with which each verse concludes. It is a somewhat flat exposition in 102 Kanda (*Arya*) verses of what according to Jaina views is virtuous.

8. *Sāstra Sāra*. Of this and of the next work I have seen only a fragment. It propounds the views of the Jainas, at the same time refuting Brahmanism.

9. Vṛttavilāsa's *Dharma Parikṣā*. Here is the beginning of it in an abridged form:—

Vaijayantī was a town beautiful for its Jaina

chaityas (sanctuaries). Its king was Jitaripu, his wife Vāyuvegā, and their son Manovega. At the same time Vijayapura was ruled by Prabhāśaika, whose wife was Vimalamati; their son was Pavanavega. Manovega studied under the teacher (*Upādhyāya*) Puṣpadatta. His intimate friend Pavanavega had his doubts regarding the Jaina tenets. Manovega asks a Muni what should be done to convince his friend, and is advised to take him to Pāṭālipura, where, by means of disputations with the Brāhmanas, his friend would become acquainted with the futility of Brahmanism.

The two friends went to that town with its fine temples of Brahma (*hiraṇyagarbha ālaya*) and various Brahmanical devotees (also *bhūtikāḍi līngi*), encamped in its garden, the next morning put on the disguise of grass- and wood-cutters, entered the town by its eastern gate, went into a temple of Brahma (*abrahma*), put down their bundles of grass and wood, beat the big (temple) drum (*bheri*), and sat down on the throne (*śikhāḍana*). As soon as the learned of the town heard the sound of the big drum, they came to the temple, thought the two strangers were great men (*śrāvana parakṣa*), made their obeisance, and asked: "What is your country? What *śāstra* do you know? With what *śiṣya* are you conversant? Tell us quickly!" They said: "We have seen the whole world, and have come here to see the town. But with *śāstras* and *śiṣyas* we are not conversant." Then the Brāhmanas said: "Except learned men come, beat the big drum, and gain the victory in disputation, they are not allowed to sit on the throne." They answered: "Be it so," and came down from the throne. The Brāhmanas put the question: "How is it that people of your glorious features appear in such a miserable state?" The strangers said: "Why do you ask thus? Have there never been any such of your own sect (*mata*) as have lived in the same state?" The Brāhmanas responded: "If there ever have been any people gifted with the same supreme power (*vibhava*) as you in our sect, that have lived in such low circumstances, tell us!"

Thereupon the strangers adduced a *śloka* about the ten *avasthas* of Viṣṇu (which I give, as it is also quoted in the abovementioned *Sāstra Sāra*): *matṛyaḥ kārma varṣas cha udraśimhas cha vāmanaḥ | rāma rūpas cha kṛṣṇas cha bandhah kilbi daśakṛitih ||*, arguing that Viṣṇu, as being subject to death and birth, could not be eternal (*nitya*); and, as having been born as animals, could be but ignorant (*adhyāni*); and said: "Such being the case, your question regarding our low circumstances is quite futile." To this the Brāhmanas had no

* This work was published in 1872 at the Basel Mission Press, Bangalore, by C. Stolz.

answer, declared the strangers to be the victors, and gave them a testimonial to that effect (*jaya patra*).

Then the two returned to the garden. The next morning, in another disguise, they entered the town at another gate, went again into a temple of Brahma, and a similar occurrence took place. After eight such meetings, during each of which Manovega plainly shows the foolishness of Brahmanical hero and deity tales, the friends return to their home.

I have still to mention two valuable Jaina Commentaries:—

10. A commentary in Kanarese on the *Amara Kośa*, called *Nāchirājī*.

11. A commentary on Halāyudha's dictionary, the *Abhidhānatnamālā*.

Liṅgāita Literature.

The *Liṅgāitas* or *Liṅgavantas* (not meaning here the *Arādhya Brāhmanas*, who also wear the *liṅga*), have always been very active in expressing their ideas in poetry. At first, as it appears, they used Sanskrit, and perhaps Telugu, as their medium; for instance, the poet *Someśvara* of *Pāṭkurike* wrote a *Basava Purāṇa* in one or the other of the two languages; I do not know whether it is still extant in the original, but we have a translation of it in Kanarese. The following are Kanarese *Liṅgāita* works:—

1. The *Śataka* of *Someśvara* of *Pāṭkurike*, who lived in the time of the *Ballāja* kings. It consists of 110 verses in the *Mattebhā Vikrīḍita* metre, and contains some moral and other reflections on various subjects. The 7th verse may serve as a specimen: "O Hara, Hara! O rich and beautiful *Someśvara* (*Śiva*)! Though one tree of the wood in which the bird roves becomes barren, will no fruitful tree grow for it? Though one flower fades, will there be no flower for the black bees? Though always one self-conceited man lies against the post, or one is parsimonious, will not constantly some liberal persons be born on earth?" The poem occasionally utters some really fine thoughts.

2. *Bhīma's Basava Purāṇa*,* 61 chapters in *Śaṭpadi*—a translation of the above-mentioned *Someśvara's Basava Purāṇa*. *Bhīma* finished his work A.D. 1369. It states that *Śiva* sent *Nandi*, the bull of *Kailāsa*, to the earth to become the son of *Mādalāmbike*, the wife of *Maṇḍige Mādirāja*, of the town of *Bāgavādi* in *Karnāṭa*, and to make the *liṅga* worship independent of Brahmanism. *Nandi* being born of her, and being called *Basava* (*Vṛishabha*), in course

of time entered the court of *Bijjaḷa*, the king of *Kalyāṇapura*, on the *Tungabhadra*, as prime minister, and by the power of his high position, by doing wonders and giving instruction, did all he could to promote the growth of the *Liṅgavanta* sect. In the end he instigated some of his followers to murder *Bijjaḷa*, who had no lasting faith in *Liṅgavāntism*. According to one account *Basava* died 810 A.D. (Kali 3911). One of the stories runs thus: "Once when *Basava* with pleasure was sitting in the assembly of the king (*Bijjaḷa*), he called out: 'It will not be spilled. Do not fear! Holla!' and with excitement stretched out his hands, as if at that moment he were lifting up an earthen vessel. Then said *Bijjaḷa*: 'He who has smeared a little finger's ashes on his body becomes mad to the degree of a mountain! Such is a true saying,' and gently laughing addressed *Basava*: 'Alas, master *Basava*, has *Śiva's* madness come upon thee too? Has the feeling of devotedness risen to thy head? Why didst thou, as if raving, suddenly call out in the assembly of the odd people (*asama*, i. e. people who worship *Śiva* with his three eyes, and who at the same time are curious characters themselves): "Do not fear!" joyfully lift up thy arms, stretch them out and act as if thou seizedst something?' Then said *Basava*: 'It is not meet to tell the mass of good properties which one has to each other; but if I do not tell, the assembly will laugh. Hear, therefore, O king *Bijjaḷa*! To the east of yonder *Tripurāṇaka* (*Śiva*) temple, about six miles from here, is a renowned *Kapileśvara* (*liṅga*). When a certain female devotee, from love, was giving it a bath of a thousand and one hundred *khaṇḍogas* of milk, this ran from street to street in a stream, and by the walking of elephants a muddy quagmire was produced. In one of the streets with such deep mud a female of the name of *Kāṭaka* carried buttermilk for sale, when her feet slipped, and she with trembling looked in this direction, and called out: "O *Basava*, reach and take the falling pot!" Then, before it could fall, I raised the pot by stretching out my hands in that direction.'" The king, who had his doubts, had the cowherd brought, who corroborated *Basava's* statement.†

Besides legends regarding *Basava*, the *Purāṇa* contains many others regarding *Śaivas* that lived before him, or at the same time with him.

3. *Virāpāksha's Channa Basava Purāṇa*,‡ finished A.D. 1585; 63 chapters in the *Śaṭpadi* metre. It contains the legend of *Channa Basava*, who was one of *Basava's* near relations and fellow-labourers

* See a translation by the Rev. G. Wüth, *Jour. Bom. Br. R. As. Soc.* vol. VIII. pp. 65-97.

† Conf. *Jour. Bom. Br. R. As. Soc.* vol. VIII. p. 76.

‡ See a translation of this also by Rev. G. Wüth, *Jour. Bom. Br. R. As. Soc.* vol. VIII. pp. 98-221.

at Kalyānapura, and some sayings of his contemporaries. Channa Basava's own sayings in general are tales about certain feats of Śiva, and statements about Liṅga doctrines and ceremonies. Chapter 54 gives the *Soma Sārya anuśaya*, of the members of which it is said that they could not have got eternal bliss; chapter 55 has short legends of Śiva Sarapas; chapter 57 is a recapitulation of Basava's wonders, etc.; and chapters 62 and 63 contain some so-called prophecy.

4. Siṅgi Rāja's *Mala Basava Charitra* (*Purāṇa*), i.e. legends regarding the great Basava (Bijjala's prime minister); 48 chapters in Śaṭpadi—doings and sayings of Basava that bear the same type as those of the preceding two *Purāṇas*. A story that was told by Basava in Bijjala's court is, in an abridged form, as follows:—A huntsman by profession one morning told his wife that he was going to bring her some sweet venison, and went away. On the road he heard the sound of conch-shells and drums proceeding out of a Śiva temple, and thought that to be a good omen. The whole day he roamed about in the jungle without seeing any game. In the evening he came to a tank, and ascended a tree that stood on its bank. It was then the fourteenth day from the full moon of the month Māgha. He plucked off the leaves that were obstructing his sight (then occurs a flaw in the manuscript). The leaves, together with some spray water, came in contact with an old liṅga that for thousands of years had been left alone. After a sleepless night, the next morning he saw that the liṅga had been worshipped, was comforted, and took some roots and fruits home as a gift (*prasaḍa*) from the Śiva liṅga, which he, and his wife who had observed the watch of the *Śiva rātri* in a temple during the night, ate as food after a fast (*pāraṇa*), and made up their mind always to do the same. However, the huntsman continued his sinful occupation of killing animals, till death showed its face, and the messengers of Yama came to take the old sinner to hell. Then Śiva's servants strongly interfered, so that Yama went to Śiva to complain. Śiva called his servants, who related the story of that night, and, by quoting a verse of Sanskrit Śiva Dharma showed the great virtue of presenting even a few leaves and some water (to a liṅga). Thereupon, Śiva sent Yama away, and blessed the huntsman and his wife, because they had performed a *Śiva rātri*.*

The age of Siṅgi Rāja is doubtful; he had, however, become a known personage at the year 1585 A.D., when it was said of him by the author of the *Channa Basava Purāṇa* that "he had

performed many wonders and obtained Śiva's grace."

5. Toṭadārya's *Śabda Maṅjari*, i.e. a vocabulary of Tadbhavas and old Kanarese words—140 verses in Śaṭpadi. Toṭadārya lived in Keggere at the time when the Narasiṃha dynasty of Vidyānagara was declining.

6. *Kabbiga Kaiṇiṇi* (the poet's *vade mecum*) by Liṅga, the prime minister of the king of Uggehalli and son of the Brāhmaṇ Virūpāksha. His work is a vocabulary like the preceding—99 verses in the same metre. Another vocabulary, the *Chaturdaya Nighaṇṭu*, by Kavi Bōmma [Brahma], may be Jaina, as it is composed in Aryā verses; Bōmma, however, is a name not unfrequent with the Liṅgāitas. It contains 100 verses.

7. Chikka Nāṭjesa's story of the poet Rāghava. It was composed after Nos. 2 and 4, as it refers to their authors. It is in Śaṭpadi, and has 19 chapters, with 1495 verses.

Rāghava's father was Mahādeva Bhaṭṭa of Pampāpura (Hampi, Vidyānagara); his guru was Hariśvara. Being once a little cross in his behaviour towards his guru, who had reproved him for not using his poetical faculties exclusively for the honour of Śiva, this worthy knocked out several of his teeth by a blow with one of his wooden shoes. The pupil, however, was received back into favour, his teeth were restored to him, and he was instructed. The drift of one of the stories that formed part of his instructions may be given here. At the time of king Bijjala there was an excellent Liṅgavanta woman in Kalyānapura, called Kamalāyi (*Kamale*). Śiva wanted to visit her, assumed the form of a debauchee, and went to the street of that town inhabited by prostitutes, in company with Nārada (the favourite Rishi of the Liṅgāitas), who had to carry his betel-pouch. The worthies of that street wondered at his beauty, and were entertained by him. Evening came on. (Here follows a very obscene description of what takes place in that direction.) Meanwhile Śiva went with Nārada to the bazar-street called "the great dancing-school," and was again the object of admiration of bad men and women. Nārada pointed out to him a number of houses occupied by female devotees, till they came to the house of Kamalāyi. She received him as a beautiful libertine, and did still more; at this last act her life entered into a liṅga. In the morning she was found dead, and a great lamentation commenced; the liṅga, however, in which her life was, became known, was brought and tied to her neck, when instantly her life returned to her.

The poet Rāghava is introduced as calling himself "the inventor of the Śaṭpadi metres"

* See also *Basava Purāṇa* in *Jour. Bom. Br. R. As. Soc.* vol. VIII. p. 94.

(Kanarese metres with six lines), metres in which nearly all the Liṅgavanta and Brahmanic Kanarese poems appear, but, as far as I know, none of the Jainas. He is pictured as a very good disputant, and died in Velāpura. His death took place before 1369 A.D., as at that year he had already become a renowned man of the past. There is a work of recent date, named *Anubhava Sīdhamaṣi*, containing Śaiva stories, that professes to be a work of Rāghava in a revised form.

8. *Prabhu Liṅga Līlā*—25 chapters, with 1110 verses, in Śatpadi. The author's name is not given in my copy; but it is probably the work of the same name that was composed by Chāmarasa Ayya at the time of Praudha Rāja of Vidyānagara. It is the legend of the Taṭṭigama Allama Prabhu, (the son of Nirahāṅkāra Muni), who at last ascended the guru throne in Kalyānapura in Basava's time. The first story relates how Allama went to the town Banavāse, in the country Bēlavala, where the king Mamakāra Prabhu ruled, and how he seduced the princess Māye, the king's only child.

9. *Praudha Rāja Kathā*, i.e. stories told to king Praudha of Vidyānagara, to convince him of the truth of Liṅgavāntism. It was written by Adriśa, the son of Annappa, of the Kāre kula of the merchant-chiefs (*desāyī*) of the parganaḥ (*para-gaṇe*) of Kollāpura. The stories are mostly, if not throughout, somewhat more detailed accounts of the short legends of Śaivas found in Bhīma's *Basava Purāṇa* and the Channa *Basava Purāṇa*.

10. *Akṣaṇḍevāra vacchana*, a treatise setting forth the specific Liṅgāita tenets and ceremonies. It is also called *Śaṭ Sthāṇa Acharaṇa*. The sacredness of the number six with the Liṅgāitas is founded on the mantra *om namaḥ Śivāya*, which has six syllables. Thus they speak of Śaṭ akṣara, Śaṭ dhātu, Śaṭ karma, Śaṭ indriya, Śaṭ Bhāva, Śaṭ liṅga. The headings to the nine chapters are as follows (the word *sthāṇa* meaning *topic*):—*Śrī guru kārūṇya sthāṇa*, *Liṅga ābhāsa sthāṇa*, *Vibhāṭi sthāṇa*, *Rudrākṣa sthāṇa*, *Bhakti sthāṇa*, *Tārya nirālamba sthāṇa*, *Prasādi sthāṇa*, *Prāya liṅgi sthāṇa*, *Saraya sthāṇa*.

11. The *Brahmottara Kāṇḍa* of the *Shanda Purāṇa* or *Śiva kathā amṛita sara*, translated after the time of the poet Rāghava—31 chapters, with 1844 verses, in Śatpadi.

12. Śaḍakshari Deva's *Rājadekhara Vīdān*, i.e. a legend regarding some episodes in the life of the Choja king Rājāśekhara—14 chapters: finished A.D. 1657. Śaḍak-shari, a disciple

of Chika (chekka) Vira deśika, stands as a poet, according to my impression, higher than all the other Kanarese poets known to me. His diction, however, is somewhat too flowery and verbose, and he frequently uses very obscene language. He introduces no verse in Śatpadi, and in this, as well as in grammar and vocabularies, imitates the ancient poets. His language is difficult, but a model of exactness.

Śaiva Literature.

By Śaivas (whether all of them were Arādhya Brāhmaṇas or not is doubtful) were composed the following works:—

1. *Bhakti Rasāyana*, by Sabajānanda; 107 verses in Śatpadi. It has some good thoughts.

2. *Anubhavadnyāsa*, by Śrī Rāṅga, son of Mahāliṅga of the Sahavāsi family, and a pupil of Sabajānanda guru. A very popular treatise on Vedāntism; 856 verses in Śatpadi.

3. *Chidakhāṇḍa anubhava sara*; 537 Śatpadi verses on the Vedānta by Chidānanda.

4. *Dnyāna Sindhu*; a Vedantist treatise in Śatpadi, 46 chapters, by Chidānandādhātta, whose guru was Chidānanda.

5. *Viśeṣa Chintāmaṇi*; ten Prakaraṇas, by Nijagūṭa Śivayogi, on matters regarding the Nigamas and Agamas. Its first paragraph, for instance, concerns *Lāvara's* attributes; then follow the four divisions of the *Veda*, then the four divisions of *vādas* (*vidhi vāda*, *artha vāda*, *mantra vāda*, *udma-dhāya*), then the *Vedāṅgas*, the *Upavedas*, &c. It is often too short to be of much use.

6. *Sarvadnyā's Padas*. Verses that sometimes express neatly the wisdom of the streets. The metre is *Triṭpadi*, a kind of Kanarese verse with three lines, that is not often used. He tells his own story in the concluding chapter. Entire copies of his work appear to be rare.*

7. *Maṅga Rāja's Nighaṇṭu*†

8. *Lāvara Kavi's Kavijīvedhaṇḍana*‡

Vaishṇava Literature.

Works that fall under this heading are of comparatively little interest, as they, with the exception of the *Dāsa Padas*, are mere translations of, or free extracts from, Paurāṇika works.

1. Jaimini's *Bhārata*, translated by Lakṣmīn of Devanūr (Māisūr), son of Annama, of the Bharadvāja family. It professes to be a translation of the *Āśvamedha parva* of a work by Jaimini Muni, the muni having given this description of Dharma Rāja's horse-sacrifice to king Janamejaya. It is in Śatpadi, and is written in a simple but classical style; 34 chapters containing 1907

* A few verses of his are translated in the *Ind. Ant.* vol. II. (1873) pp. 23 seqq.

† An account of this work is given in the *Ind. Ant.* vol. I. (1872) pp. 343 seqq.

‡ See the Mangalore edition of the *Sādhanaśāstra*, p. xxiv. seqq. A *Saṅgītā Ratnākara*, which I have never seen, is said to treat of melodies (*rāga*).

verses. Some say (for instance the Munshi Tirumale Syāmaṅga of the Wesleyan Missionaries in Maisūr) that it is not more than about 150 years old.*

2. *Mahābhārata*, ten of the *Parvas* in Śaṭpadi. The translator, who calls himself Kumāra Vyāsa, dictated his verses in the town of Gadagū (not far from Dhārvād). In his time, he states, there already existed a number of translations of the *Rāmāyaṇa*. This translation, as well as that to be mentioned next, cannot be called classical.

3. *Rāmāyaṇa*, translated in Śaṭpadi by a Brāhmaṇ under the assumed name of Kumāra Vālmīki, as it seems, an inhabitant of the place Torave (in the district of Solāpur). This work is later than Kumāra Vyāsa's, as he refers to him. (Can they be identical?) He honourably mentions the Vedāntist Saṅkarāchārya.

4. The *Bhāgavata Purāṇa*; 11,298 verses in Śaṭpadi. Towards the end the author says: "The good poet Chāṣa Viṭṭhala Nātha has made the Kanarese translation."

5. *Jagannātha Vijaya*; 18 chapters, by Rudra. He says he has taken his stories from the *Viṣṇu Purāṇa*, and his object is to glorify Kṛishṇa. The work contains well-known Kṛishṇa legends, in this case in various Sanskrit metres, thus bearing the appearance of some antiquity. Also the predecessors he mentions—Bāṇa, Harsha, Māgha, Saṅkha-varma, Sānti-varma, Guṇa-varma, Manasi-ja, Karnama, Pampa, Chandrabhaṭṭa, Ponnamayya, Gajāñ-kuśa—are of a peculiar character.

6. *Kṛishṇa Lilābhayudaya*, taken from the *Bhāgavata Purāṇa*. The author invokes Mādhava Muni or Anandatīrtha (of Uḍupā or Uḍupī, on the western coast, who died A. D. 1273). Regarding his family, &c., he says, "In the grāma of Kaḍagatūr, in the country Penugonḍa (?), is a Brāhmaṇ of the Jāmadagnya gotra, a servant of Mādhava Muni, a Kanarese of the northern district. His son is Vēṅkayāra Timma Arasārya. Of him I, Vēṅkayāra, am the first-born son; my mother is Śeṣhāmbe, my brother is Nārāyaṇārya. I bear the appellation Haridāsa. The lord of my work is Vēṅkaṭa Sauri" (i. e. Kṛishṇa of Tirupati). The work consists of 51 chapters, with 2543 verses in Śaṭpadi. It bears also the name of *Kanaka Kṛishṇa Lilābhayudaya*.†

7. *Harī Bhakti Rādayana* by Chidānanda, 301 Śaṭpadi verses in 5 chapters. In the prologue he confesses he does not know the mysteries of

the Vedānta, or the Kāpila, Pātāñjala, and Sāṅdilya methods, or the way of the Agamas and Purāṇas, and will only write by the grace of his guru. Afterwards, however, he professes to give a short abstract of the Agamas and Purāṇas.

8. The *Dāsa Padas*; songs by Kṛishṇa's servants, in honour of their master. They are in various Ragale metres, composed to be sung, and each accompanied by a refrain. They frequently refer to Rāmānuja and Mādhava of Uḍupā as the great gurus. There exist many hundreds of these popular songs by Kanaka Dāsa, Purandara Dāsa, and others.‡ Kṛishṇa is always introduced as being represented by an idol, this being either at Uḍupā, or Tirupati, or Paṇḍaripura, or Velāpura or Śrīraṅga, or Kāṅginele (in the Kōḍa taluk of Dhārvād). The Kṛishṇa Dāsas in South India may stand in connexion with Chaitanya (A. D. 1486—1534) § and his followers.

I give a Purandara Dāsa hymn that has the honour of being the first piece in a school-book in a prose translation:—

"Refrain.—In the whole world those are fools
Who leave the one god (Kṛishṇa) and adore
bad gods."

Hymn.

"He who leaves his wife alone (not thinking that she might yield to temptation) is a fool;

He who lends money to relations is a fool;

He who entrusts a person with his money-bag is a fool;

He who is an impudent fellow is a great fool, O master!

He who sells his own daughter to sustain himself is a fool;

He who lives in the house where his wife has been born is a fool;

He who uses bad language when poverty comes on is a fool;

He who has no fixed mind is a great fool, O master!

He who in his old age takes a wife is a fool;

He who plays with a serpent is a fool;

He who does not support the twenty-one families (kūla) is a fool;

He who does not say 'O father Viṭhala' (i. e. Kṛishṇa) is a fool;

He who milks the mother the calf of which has died is a fool, O master!

He who lends money without a pledge is a fool;

on his breast that is like a sapphire (harī nīla) give me success!"

‡ Of these 174 have been printed at Mangalore, and reprinted at Bangalore.

§ See "Chaitanya and the Vaishṇava Poets of Bengal;" Ind. Ant. vol. II. (1873) pp. 1 seqq.

* Conf. Weber's *Indische Stiefeln*, p. 392.

† Verse 2 of the work is: "When a sapphire (indra nīla) is set in gold (kavacha), people think it natural; when gold is set in a sapphire, they wonder (? here occurs a flaw in the manuscript). May the godly Vēṅkaṭa Sauri, who always wears the spotless gold-jacket (?kāvachashuk)

He who is brooding over eighty subjects is a fool;
He who uses bad language against his own
mother is a great fool;

He who betrays the house in which he has eaten
is a fool;

He who utters calumnies is a fool;

He who sees the glorious Purandara
Viṭhala with the white-lotus eyes and does not
worship him is a great fool, O master!"

According to many other hymns the Purandara
Viṭhala is identical, for instance, with the Krishna
idols at Paṇḍaripura and Tirupati, in
the lastmentioned place being the Vēṭkaṭagiri or
Pūragiri or Śeṣhādri on which he dwells.

9. *Kṛishṇa Ckaritra* or *Vaṇa mokṣaṇa targaṇ-
gīṇī*; 42 chapters, with 2705 verses (the metre of
our manuscript being very irregular, I cannot tell
in what metre it is composed), by Kanaka Dāsa.
The second chapter begins: "He who has uttered
the work is the best servant (*dāsa*) Kanaka; she
to whom he has uttered it is his wife, the very wise
woman; the lord of the work is the *Adi Keśava* of
Kāṅṇīnēle; when a person hears it, virtue is obtain-
ed." And towards the end of the work Kanaka
Dāsa says: "Kāṅṇīnēle's Narasiṃha, who is the
Adi Keśava, will cause the wishes of good people
to be fulfilled." Kanaka Dāsa, "by the favour of
Kāṅṇīnēle's *Adi Keśava*," composed also a *Bhakti
Sāra*, 108 verses in Śaṭpadi.

Of *Stories* in prose I mention the translations of
the Sanskrit *Pañchataṇḍra*, *Vedāla Pañchaviṃśatī*,

and *Hemsa Viṃśatī*. The translation of *Suka
Śaṭpadi* is in Śaṭpadi verses. Of stories in prose
I may adduce still the following, as they are
connected with a semi-historical person, viz. the
tales about Rāma Krishna of Tennāla. The work
begins with saying that in Tennāla, to the north
of Madras, there was the Brāhman boy Rāma
Krishna. Once when a Sanyāsi saw him, he liked
him so much that he taught him a *mantra*, telling
him to repeat it thirteen million times in a Kāṇṇī
temple, when the goddess with her thousand
faces would appear to him and bestow a proper
boon on him, if he did not lose his courage.
The boy did as he had been told, and Kāṇṇī appeared
to him as a female with a thousand faces and two
hands. He was anything but afraid, and began to
laugh. Kāṇṇī asked: "Why dost thou laugh at
me?" Then said the boy: "O mother, man has
one nose and two hands; but whenever he catches
a cold, he gets overmuch to do with blowing his
nose. Thou hast a thousand faces and a thou-
sand noses; well, when it sometimes happens
that thou catchest a cold, how dost thou blow thy
noses?" Then Kāṇṇī cursed him to become a
prince's jester. In course of time he went to
Anegondi, the capital of the Karnāṭaka coun-
try, where Krishna Rāya, with his minister Appāji,
ruled, at the court of whom he played the nineteen
tricks related in the work.

I trust others will undertake to make our know-
ledge of Kanarese literature more complete.

CORRESPONDENCE AND MISCELLANEA.

To the Editor of the Indian Antiquary.

SIR,—Since the publication, in your December
number, of my concluding paper upon Castes in
Pupā and Solāpur, I have received from a
Catholic friend a letter objecting to some state-
ments made in it respecting the native Christians,
of which I hope you will publish the enclosed copy.
The passages omitted and indicated by asterisks
were purely personal, or referred to names of
persons and places which I think it unnecessary
to publish, although entrusted with a discretion to
do so.

Even without the proofs advanced by my cor-
respondent, I would have no hesitation in accept-
ing his authority as superior to my own, and to the
sources whence my original information was
desired, although these were not *prima facie* un-
trustworthy. It only remains for me to add that
I used the word 'Ultramontane' simply as the
name of a party, for which I don't know any other
in general use, and without attaching to it any
objectionable sense, and that the paper in question

was written several months ago. Had I written
now, after Mr. Gladstone's essay and pamphlet
have excited men's minds upon the subject, I
should certainly have omitted the whole passage,
having no desire to make the *Antiquary* a field of
religious discussion, whatever my private opinions
may be.

W. F. SINCLAIR.

MY DEAR MR. SINCLAIR, * * * * * I
however take exception to the correctness of your
remarks on the Catholics of Western India under
the jurisdiction of the see of Goa.

You say (1) that they are very much at one with
the (so-called) Old Catholics of Germany, and (2)
that they are at bitter feud with the 'Ultra-
montane party,' as represented by the Bishop of
Bombay and the Jesuits. I have had nineteen
years' intimate personal experience of the con-
dition of Catholics of both jurisdictions, and say
confidently that you mistake in both these asser-
tion.

In March last there was an open-air meeting in

the quadrangle of St. Xavier's College at Bombay, attended by not less than 4000 persons; at least two-thirds of them were of the Goanese obedience. This meeting was presided over by the Vicar Apostolic (who is commonly known, as you style him, as the Bishop of Bombay), the Vicar General of the Portuguese jurisdiction sat on his right hand, and numbers of each jurisdiction were seated alternately on the dais. Each motion was proposed and seconded by persons of each jurisdiction. The utmost good-feeling prevailed, and the two telegrams which resulted from the meeting—one to the Pope congratulating him on his 83rd birthday, and the second to the German Bishops, offering them our sympathy under persecution—were sent signed by the Vicar Apostolic and by the Vicar General, in the name of "*the Catholics of both jurisdictions*." The clergy of the two jurisdictions constantly officiate in each other's churches at Bombay, Mahim, and Bandora, and doubtless elsewhere. It is true that there was at one time a dispute between the two jurisdictions which ran to the scandalous length of disputes in civil and criminal courts, but what I have said above is, I hope, evidence to prove that the quarrel was of short endurance, and that now there is not only no feud, but Catholic harmony between the separate jurisdictions. As to the alleged Altkatholiken sympathies of the Goanese Catholics, I point to the telegram of our March meeting to the Catholic Bishops of Germany in refutation of it.

I have lived * * * * for four years under the Goanese jurisdiction, and have not been able to discover any difference in doctrine or in sympathy * * * * I see that you, in common with the English press, use the very puzzling word Ultramontane in connection with the Jesuits. The word was first coined in reference to the temporal power of the Pope, but it is difficult to say what it now means. I have come to understand it to mean "a consistent, firm, and enthusiastic Catholic;" if you use it in this sense, I take leave to apply it to the clergy of both jurisdictions here.

THE GOD VITHOBĀ OF PANDARPUR.

The defilement and injury of this idol, which have been already referred to,* form a regular case of *Hara versus Hari* (*Śiva versus Viṣṇu*—Vithobā being held to be an incarnation of the latter). Three devotees of Śiva from one of the great South of India shrines found access to the temple of Vithobā, and from jealousy, it is sup-

posed, of his popularity, and from covetousness of his emoluments, set to belabour him with stones suspended from their necks. They inflicted serious injuries on the face, belly, and feet of the image before they could be disarmed. They were nearly beaten to death by Vithobā's votaries, but saved ultimately by the police. On being brought before the magistrate (a native judiciously selected), no person appeared to prosecute them for the supposed sacrilege of which they were guilty; and they were duly set at liberty, and have disappeared from the scene. The calamity was then, with telegraphic speed, bruited throughout the whole of the Marāṭhā Country and other provinces of India. The inquiry universally arose among the natives, What can be done to mitigate the catastrophe? The doors of the temple were shut, and workmen were understood to be busy, either in effecting repairs, or in constructing a new image likely to be floated on a tank by the help of a board beneath it, and given forth as the return of the "self-formed" image so long worshipped. While repairs have been effected in the way expected, the image worshipped in the shrine frequented by the lowest castes has interchanged places with the article that was mended, and which was wont to be worshipped by the thousands and tens of thousands of Marāṭhā pilgrims.—*Dr. J. Wilson.*

ĀGARĪS.

Āgarī: a numerous caste in Thānā district, and found on or near the sea-coast. There are two divisions: 1, *Jusāgarī*; 2, *Mithāgarī*,—the former working in cocoanut plantations, drawing the toddy, is said to be addicted to drinking, yet to rank as Marāṭhās or Kunābīs: the latter, or *Mithāgarīs*, work in the salt-pans on the low, flat shore. Their work is very arduous and necessitates long exposure to the sun's rays: character similar; also said to be a branch of the Marāṭhās, but they neither eat nor intermarry with Āgarīs; and it seems probable that the whole of the people termed Āgarīs are of the same origin as the *Kolīs*, whom they are said to resemble in every part of their character. In Gujarāt the salt-preparers are *Kolīs*, and in Kāmarā a corresponding people have been noticed, the *Khārwlis*—wrongly, it would seem, termed *Śādras*, in the Leper return of that district,—intimating that there also an idea prevails that the caste belongs to the *Śādra* division. *Khārwlis* are also compared to *Bhills*. They are probably of aboriginal origin.—*Trans. Med. & Phys. Soc. of Bombay*, No. XI. N. S.

* *Ind. Ant.* vol. II. p. 272.

† *Ind. Ant.* vol. II. p. 154, and conf. vol. III. p. 77.

SKETCH OF SABÆAN GRAMMAR.

BY E. REHATSEK, M.C.E., Hon. Mem. B. Br. R. A. S.

During the latter part of the first half of this century, when certain inscriptions were first brought to Europe from the southern part of Arabia, hazy notions were entertained about them. It was not even certain whether they ought to be read from right to left, as all the Semitic languages, or in the contrary direction, and conjectures were hazarded about their Abyssinian, Ethiopic, or even Phœnician origin. Fresnel, the French Consul for Jeddah, made a collection, which was published, and gradually scholars, like Osiander and others, ventured to read and to interpret them. The number of these inscriptions, small and large—the shortest consisting only of a few words, and the longest of many lines, engraved on stone, but some also on metal plates—amounts now to more than eight hundred; but as the language ceased to be spoken, probably about the beginning of the Christian era, and no other written monuments of it exist, considerable difficulty is experienced in eliciting the true sense of these records, though at present the mode of deciphering them has become so well fixed that their reading presents not much difficulty, except in cases where the letters are indistinct either in the originals or the copies. There is also a blacksmith in Mareb who, allured by the profit arising from the sale of copper tablets, manufactures spurious ones from old inscriptions, and has been exposed in the *Journal* of the German Oriental Society as a forger; some fabricated texts also were published there by Prætorius in 1872 (pp. 426-433).

The cognate languages, but especially the Arabic, Ethiopic, and Hebrew, afford the most valuable aid to the scholars who have signalized themselves in this field of Oriental research; as yet they do not all quite agree in their translations, but they may nevertheless be depended upon as safe guides in researches of this kind. The number of such men at present is small; the chief scholars are Prætorius, Lenormant, Socin, Levy, and Halévy,—the latter of whom was bold enough to go personally to Southern Arabia and copy nearly seven hundred of these

inscriptions, which are by the Arabs called Hemyaritic.

According to Muhammadan tradition the town of Hemyar was not originally the seat of empire; it was Saba, the present Mareb, which was annihilated by the breaking of a dam* not only husbanding the waters flowing from the mountains for the irrigation of the land, but also enhancing the power of the monarch, who thus kept in his hands the key of fertilization, and was enabled to grant or to withhold it as he listed. The memory of this catastrophe, considered as a chastisement from God, in which many inhabitants perished, and in consequence whereof the seat of government was transferred to the town of Hemyar, survived till the *Qur'ân* was written, and is alluded to in *sura* xxxiv. 14 and 15, as the inundation of *Âla'rem*, i.e. of the dams that confined the water:—

لَقَدْ كَانَ لِسَبَإٍ فِي مَعْنِيهِمْ آيَةٌ جَنَّتَانِ
مِنْ يَمِينٍ وَشِمَالٍ كُلًّا مِنْ رِزْقِ رَبِّكُمْ وَ
أَشْكُرُوا لَهُ بَلَدًا طَيِّبَةً رَبُّ غَفُورٌ ۝ ١٥ فَاغْرُوسُوا
فَارْسَلْنَا عَلَيْهِمْ سِيلَ الْغَرَمِ

"14. The people of Saba had indeed in their dwelling-places a sign:—Two gardens, on the right and on the left! [It was said to them] 'Eat ye of the bounty of your Lord and be thankful unto him! [Yours is] a goodly country and a gracious Lord. 15. But they turned aside [from this injunction]; and we sent upon them the inundation of *Âla'rem*."

The names Hemyar and Saba are also of frequent occurrence in the inscriptions themselves, but it appears that the expression Hemyaritic instead of Sabæan language, which has hitherto been current, will in course of time have to give way to the latter, as being perhaps more expressive and comprehensive.

The Languages of Southern Arabia.

There is great probability that the language

* See M. Caussin de Perceval, *Hist. des Arabes*, Tome III. He and M. de Sacy agree in fixing this flood of Irem in the second century A.D.—Ed.

whose written monuments, in spite of the iconoclastic fervour of the first Moslems, have been preserved to our times, must have been the principal idiom of Southern Arabia, though there is no doubt also that various other dialects, and even languages, were current; but in the entire absence of reliable information it would be useless to adduce the scanty and unreliable notices in Muhammadan authors, by whom such pagan researches were generally considered sinful unless they contribute in some way to elucidate their own religion, and to this circumstance we are indebted also for the meagreness of the vocabulary purporting to contain Hemyaritic and Yamani words given by Suyuti* as follows:

قوله تعالى وانتم ساهدون قال الغناء وهي بهانيه
..... عكومه قال هي بالسحيرية

قوله تعالى ولو انني معاذيرة قال سذوره * قال
بلغه اهل يمين

لا وزر قال لا حبل * وهي بلغه اهل اليمين
اللعو يسان اليهينه المرأة

قوله ندعون بعلا قال ربا بلغه اليمين
الطير جهالة بلغه حمير

فلقبوا هربوا بلغه اليمين

بلغه حميرية يسبون الكتاب اسطورا

It will be observed that some Qoranic words are here translated differently; thus in *sura* LIII. 61 *و انتم ساهدون* is usually rendered by "And you are careless or triflers," or, as Sale has it, "spending your time in idle diversions;" but Suyuti renders the word *ساهدون* by *الغناء*

Again, in LXXV. 15 *ولو انني معاذيرة* the meaning is "and though he offer his excuses" (or set forth his plea); but Suyuti puts for *معاذيرة* its equivalent *سذوره*; and in the same chapter, v. 11, *لا وزر* we have in Suyuti for *لا وزر* "no place," the word *لا حبل*. He further says that *لهو* [play] is in the Yamani language *المرأة* [woman]. In *sura* XXXVIII. 15, "Do ye invoke Ba'el," he says *ربا* the acc. of *رب* [Lord]. The word *طير* [bird, &c.] means, according to him, in the Hemyaritic language, *جهالة* [ignor-

ance]. In *sura* L. 35 *فلقبوا* rendered by Sale "Pass therefore," is, in the language of Yemen *هربوا*—"they fled." Lastly *كتاب* book is in the Hemyaritic language called *اسطور*.

The following expressions, occurring in the same work, p. 314, stated to be Hemyaritic, with their Arabic equivalents, I insert without comment:—

بلغه حمير نفضا قنبا عثرا طلع سفاهة جنون زبلنا

ميزنا مرجوا حقيرا الساقية الاناء مسنون صنتن

امام كتاب ينفسون لسكرتون حسبانا بردا من الكبر

عتيا نكولا ما رب حاجات خرجا جعل غراما بلا *

الصرح الديث انكر الاصوات اقبها يتوكم يلقمكم

مدينين محاسبين رايده شديدة وبيل شديدة بيجار

بمساط مرض زنا القطر النحاس مكشورة مجموعة

مكشورة محبوسا *

Hemyaritic is believed to have ceased to be a spoken language long before the Hijrah era; but perhaps it may have been used later also, in the same manner as Latin inscriptions are still employed on buildings, monuments, and coins among ourselves, long after the language itself has become a dead one.

The Hemyaritic or rather Sabæan language, as at present known from the inscriptions, although essentially one, may be divided into four varieties or dialects, the first of which is the general Sabæan, comprising by far the greatest number of all the inscriptions hitherto known; the second was current in Ma'in, and is the Minaean dialect belonging to the people called *Minaei* by the Greek and Roman geographers; the third is nearly the same as the last, and was spoken in the interior of Hadramaut; whilst the fourth, to judge from terminations of words such as *عصر* "his sanctuary" and *عصر* "their rank and order," appears to have been affected by Persian influences, as it is well known that Persian colonies existed there.

The inscriptions hitherto discovered may, according to their contents, be divided into six classes:—

I. Votive inscriptions, usually engraved on bronze tablets or stone slabs, occurring in the interior or in the immediate vicinity of temples. A multitude of national and local deities are mentioned in them, and these prove the Sabæan pantheon to have been prodigiously rich.

II. Votive tablets, called by Halévy *Proscynèmes*, belonging to strangers who completed some act of devotion in the sanctuary and there inscribed their names and descent. These inscriptions are engraved on slabs suitable for the purpose, and the formulæ vary but slightly. The chief interest of these inscriptions centres in the large number of territories, towns, and tribes mentioned in them, affording materials for a restoration of the ancient geography and ethnography of Southern Arabia.

III. Architectural inscriptions, traced on the walls of temples and other public edifices, in order to commemorate the name of the building, or of the persons who had contributed to it. In this latter case, care is taken to indicate the exact dimensions of the portion constructed by each man, and if a stranger was among them his country and tribe are mentioned. Inscriptions of this kind constitute the majority in Halévy's collection.

IV. Historical inscriptions, intended to announce a victory gained over a foe, or to commemorate an event wherein the author plays a part. Under this head fall the texts of Mareb and of Širwāḥ, the inscription on Hiṣn G'urāḥ, and especially the inscription on the monolith of Širwāḥ, the copy of which was stolen from Halévy by the Arabs.

V. Police orders, engraved on pillars at the entrance of temples or other public localities, in order to warn the people against the commission of damages under pain of fines. These texts are very interesting, because they show great perfection in the civil organization, as well as the existence of a penal code among the Sabæans.

VI. Funerary inscriptions, not many of which have as yet been discovered, but which prove that the Sabæans were in the habit of carrying away their dead from inhabited places into isolated valleys, and up mountains, where they erected small houses for them.

The Sabæan Alphabet.

In the following sketch of Sabæan grammar I shall give only what has been fixed by valuable authorities, not the least of whom is Halévy, whom I intend to follow closely. I shall only mark by signs of interrogation words not yet fully authorized, and shall designate the inscriptions of Fresnel, Osiander, and Halévy respectively by *Fr. Os. Hal.* or *H.* Although the alphabet is at present well fixed, I append *A harmonic Sabæan, Hebrew, and Arabic Alphabet*, and shall adduce some peculiarities of certain letters; mention a few, the occurrence of which is rare, and whose value was not at first very well fixed; enumerate those letters which are apt to give rise to confusion; and, lastly, I shall mention such letters as may, by their too great proximity to each other in certain inscriptions, sometimes be mistaken for one letter.

The *ā* generally remains after the preformative letters of the Imperfect, thus:—*ḥāḥ*, *ḥāḥ*. There are, however, a few exceptions: *ḥā* (*H.* 152, 14*), *ḥā* (*Os. VIII. 11†*). In the Minæan dialect the *ā* is sometimes considered as a vowel: thus we very often find *ḥā* (*Fr. H.* 188, 5), *ḥāḥ* (*H.* 199, 1), *ḥāḥ* (*H.* 111, 5) for *ḥā*, *ḥāḥ*, *ḥāḥ*. This takes place even in the divine name *ḥāḥ* (*H.* 222, 1; 229, 2), which is certainly derived from the radical *ḥā* (ح = ḥā). The other gutturals, *ā*, *ā*, *ā*, and *ā*, present no peculiarity.

The letters *ā* and *ā*, like the first radical of verbs, are often elided by the servile letters:—*ḥāḥ*, *ḥāḥ* for *ḥāḥ*, *ḥāḥ*; when the *ā* forms the third radical it generally remains unchanged, thus:—*ḥāḥ*, *ḥāḥ*, *ḥāḥ*; but also *ḥāḥ*, *ḥāḥ* occur (*Os. XII. 9; 1, 19*).

The servile *ā* usually becomes *ā* in the Minæan and in the Ḥaḍramaut dialect; thus *ḥāḥ*, *ḥāḥ*, the suffix of the third person, appears in these dialects in the form *ḥāḥ*, *ḥāḥ*, for instance *ḥāḥ* or *ḥāḥ*, *ḥāḥ* instead of *ḥāḥ* (*Fr.*), *ḥāḥ* (*Os.*), *ḥāḥ* (*Fr.*). In the same manner the fourth form of the verb, which is in ordinary Sabæan *ḥāḥ*, becomes *ḥāḥ* in these dialects: thus the Sabæan *ḥāḥ*, *ḥāḥ* in the Minæan and Ḥaḍramaut dialect will be *ḥāḥ*, *ḥāḥ*. This is another approach to the Assyrian, and in general to the languages of East Africa. This form answers to the Aramæan *ḥāḥ* and to the Ethiopic *ḥāḥ*.

The change of the servile *ā* into *ā* is much

* Halévy's inscriptions here referred to will be found in the *Journal Asiatique* (1872 Fév.—Mars).

† Osiander's are given in No. 7, Oct. 1873, &c.

more strictly observed in the Hadramaut than in the Minæan dialect, where sometimes the usual form occurs. The first of these dialects, however, displays another peculiarity, namely, if an *u* is to be added to a word terminating with *n* it is not affixed, but the *n* is changed to *h*, thus *hān*, *hām*, *hān*, *hām* (N. H. I), for *nān*, *nām*, *nān*, *nām*. But this *h*, instead of representing an absorption of *n*, may perhaps only represent an aspirated pronunciation of the feminine *n*, as is usual in Barbary and in some districts of Yemen.

Permutation between *n* and *h* occurs seldom, as in *nān* (Fr. LV. 4), *nām* (N. H. I), and *nān* (H. G. I, 8) for *nān*, *nām*, *nān*, but this may perhaps be an error of the copy.

A much more important permutation is that according to which the sound *g* (*g'*) is rendered by a simple *z* (*g*) like *zū* (Os. XVII. 8-9) instead of *zū* (*ibid.* XVIII. 10). In the same way the root *zū* (H. 169, 2) must assimilate with the Arab *زعت*, and the root hidden in the form *zū* (Hal. 639, 3) does not differ from that occurring in *zū* (Os. IV. 10-11). This permutation proves that the Sabæans always pronounced *z* *g* hard, as some tribes still do, and not like *j*, as is most usual with modern Arabs.

In the repetition of two consonants the full uncontracted form is preferred in Sabæan. This peculiarity appears to be confined to the liquids *h*, *n*, *z*, *r*; for instance:—*zūzū* (Os. I. 7), *zūzū* (D. M. G. XIX. 1), *zūzū* (Os. XV. 2), *zūzū* (H. 191, 1), instead of *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*. The proper noun *zūzū* must certainly be pronounced *Waddādū* (وَدَادُ) "friend," as the form of the participle (*zūzū*) (H. 187, 2) proves.

The roots of the Sabæan language are mostly trilateral, and present all the forms occurring in the other Semitic languages:—

- I. Perfect roots:—*zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*;
- II. *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*;
- III. *zūzū*, *zūzū*, and *zūzū*: *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*;
- IV. *zūzū*, *zūzū*, and *zūzū*: *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*;
- V. Mixed roots:—*zūzū*, *zūzū*, *zūzū*.

As already observed, quadrilateral roots are scarce, and seem to occur only in some proper nouns, such as *zūzū* or *zūzū*, *zūzū* and in the name of the divinity *zūzū*, which latter is abridged to *zūzū* when it designates a man's name. *zūzū* and *zūzū* are contracted from *zūzūzū*, *zūzūzū*.

The noun *zūzū* is contracted from *zūzūzū* (*zūzū*). The word *zūzū* "rum" (H. 187, 6, &c) appears to be formed from *zūzūzū*, "he who enters into the house:" which epithet may refer to the unconcernedness of this animal.

The degradation of the sibilants may be represented by the following scale:—

$$\begin{aligned} & z - z^* - r \\ & z - z^* - r^* - h^* - h^{**} - n \\ & z - z^* - r^* - z - r \end{aligned}$$

These transitions do not occur with regularity and in a logical manner in the Semitic languages; they are possible without being necessary. The forms accompanied by an asterisk are common both to the Arabic and to the Sabæan; the latter, however, may degrade the original *z* a degree further by transforming it into *h*. The Aramæan descends to this last stage of degradation.

In the other consonants the Sabæan generally agrees with the phonetics of the Arabic language; sometimes, however, it deviates, and follows a manner peculiar to itself. Among cases of this kind the fact is to be pointed out that the Arabic words *من* from and *من* who are

both rendered by *p*, so that it becomes difficult to distinguish them from the substantive *p* son, but in some cases this change does not take place, and the word occurs exactly as in Arabic.

The exact determination of the letters equivalent to *g* and *h* is due to Osiander, but he was not so successful in determining the equivalent of *z*. There is also another character the value of which was debated, but is now believed by Halévy to represent an intermediate sound between the Arabic letters *z* and *h*. (See p. 26. B.)

The Sabæans rivalled the Egyptians and the Assyrians in the extreme care with which they produced their graphic texts: hence the inscriptions of Yemen are numbered among the most beautiful of antiquity. They are traced on stone or metal, and present a monumental character which seems to have been immutably fixed in very remote times, else it could not have subsisted with such uniformity from the banks of the Euphrates to Aden. Some details observed in certain letters are not confined to a fixed region, but arise only from the sculptor's manner. But, in spite of the general neatness of the characters, it is impossible for copyists not to confound with each other certain letters, especially when they have to deal with a text obliterated, or seen

from a distance. The chief sources of confusion are the Sabæan forms for the letters—

I. α , β , γ , δ . II. ϵ , ζ , η , θ , ι . III. κ and λ . IV. μ , ν , ρ , σ . V. τ and υ . VI. ϕ and χ . VII. ψ and ω . VIII. α and β . IX. ρ and σ .

An attentive collation of texts only can elicit the true lection. (See p. 26.)

There is reason to believe that, besides the monumental, another more manageable cursive form of writing also developed itself: the inscriptions of Beled Arhab, of Beled Nehm, of Sil'yâm, but principally the *graffiti* of Jebel Shoyhân, which contain so many strange signs, bear witness to this. It is even possible that a portion of these signs are due to the combination of two or three letters for their unusual forms. That the Sabæan characters allowed of ligatures is proved by the existence of numerous monograms where one common trait serves to unite three and even four letters. Like many other nations, the Sabæans also used ornamental letters, of which several specimens exist. In the Museum of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society there is among the Sabæan inscriptions one with a large ornamental initial enclosed in a quadrangular frame cut round it, leaving the letter τ in relief, with three ornamental cavities in its body; and in another much smaller slab one trait unites several letters.

The Sabæan orthography is very sparing in the designation of vowels. The letter α never graphically denotes a vowel; with rare exceptions ϵ and ι are rendered by \cdot and \cdot at the end of words only. There exists, on the contrary, a great tendency to elide these in the body of words, even when they are radicals, or when they represent an element of grammatical flexion. Thus we meet with $\alpha\tau$ (H. 624, 2), $\rho\alpha$ (H. 155, 1), $\nu\alpha$ (Os. iv. 1), $\sigma\iota$ (H. 589), instead of the usual orthography, $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha\alpha$, $\nu\alpha\alpha$, $\sigma\iota\iota$. Sometimes the *scriptio defectiva* is adopted where the existence of a diphthong is certain; thus, for instance, the word H a d r a m a n t is nearly always spelt $\alpha\tau\alpha\tau$; likewise $\rho\alpha$ (Os. xviii. 5) for $\rho\alpha\alpha$.

The words are generally separated by a perpendicular line; this, however, is often omitted in inscriptions written with cursive characters, which aggravates the difficulty of interpretation. Often this mark of separation is too close to the

adjoining characters, and is apt to give rise to mistakes. For instance, the representative of ϵ standing too near after the perpendicular of separation, may with it be read as δ , τ ; if it be after ϵ it will make with it the letter β , and if it be immediately after ω the supposed coalescence will represent κ ; and lastly if it precedes ϵ both together will make $\epsilon\zeta$. The end of the inscription is sometimes indicated by certain ornaments; there are also two or three signs to indicate the beginning, especially in long texts sculptured on large edifices. Inscriptions of small extent destined to attract the attention of the public are enclosed by one or two letters. (D.)*

The Verb.

The voices which have hitherto been authenticated are the following seven:—

1. Original form α Qal: $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha$, $\nu\alpha$, $\sigma\iota$, $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha$.
2. Energetic form α Pa'el: $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha$.
3. Reflective form α Tafa'el (tafa'el): $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha$.
4. Internal reflective form α Pat'al: $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha$, $\nu\alpha$, $\sigma\iota$, $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha$.
- 5a. Causative form α Hafil: $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha$, $\nu\alpha$, $\sigma\iota$, $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha$.
- 5b. α Safel: $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha$, $\nu\alpha$, $\sigma\iota$, $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha$ (Minæan and Hadramaut dial.).
6. Reflective causative form: α Saff'al: $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha$, $\nu\alpha$, $\sigma\iota$.
7. Causative and reciprocal form α Hinf'al: $\alpha\tau\alpha$.

The Qal is the principal voice, from which the other voices are derived, either by internal modifications of the radical, or by the aid of certain letters added externally. As the Sabæan writing shows only the skeletons of words, we are not able to point out the various details of the root with reference to the vowels. Accordingly we do not know whether the second radical was pronounced with the vowels α , ϵ , ι , as in the majority of the Semitic languages, or whether it was affected by the *sheva*, as in Ethiopic.

Thanks to the usage of separately pronouncing the duplicated liquids, it is possible to discover the existence of the Pa'el among the voices derived by the internal modification of the root: $\alpha\tau\alpha$, $\rho\alpha$, $\nu\alpha$ (H. 188, 2); the proper

* All this I have shown on p. 26.

noun ḥḥ (*H.* 193, 1) leads also to ḥḥ (ḥḥ); to the voice Pa'el belongs also ḥḥ (ḥḥ , *Os.* VIII. 3) and ḥḥ (ḥḥ , *Os.* VI. 4, VII. 4-5, &c.). As the Pa'el (third Arabic form) is discerned only by the vowel, it is of course not visible in the text; but as this voice exists also in Ethiopic, it could not be wanting in Sabæan.

The Pa'al, which answers to the Arabic *ifta'al* (8th conj. ifta'al) but is wanting in Ethiopic, is a much more interesting voice. Numerous examples of it occur: ḥḥ (*H.* G.), ḥḥ (*H.* 187, 3), ḥḥ (*Naqab el Hajar*, 1), ḥḥ (*Os.* XII. 5), ḥḥ (*H.* 484, 4), ḥḥ (*H.* 478, 16), from ḥḥ , ḥḥ , ḥḥ , ḥḥ .

The voices formed by an external augmentation are the same as in Arabic and Ethiopic, only the physiognomy of the preformatives is more original than in those languages. For the Tafa'al (5th conj. tafa'al) we possess as examples ḥḥ (*Fr.* No. LV. XIV. 3; *Os.* v.), ḥḥ (*Fr.* No. LV.), ḥḥ (ḥḥ , *H.* 147, 1), ḥḥ and ḥḥ , whence the divine names— ḥḥ (*H.* 144, 6; 145, 3; 146, 3, &c.) and ḥḥ (*H.* 189, 1; 222, 1) are derived.

The addition of a prefix ḥ serves to form the causative; this voice, identical with the Hebrew ḥḥ , corresponds to the ḥḥ of the other Semitic languages (Arabic 4th conj. ḥḥ). As a proof that the ḥ is original, it may be adduced that instead of ḥḥ the Minaean and Hadramaut dialects regularly present the form ḥḥ ; but, as the change of the servile ḥ into ḥ is repeated in the pronoun, it becomes clear that the ḥḥ of these dialects implies the existence of a ḥḥ ; accordingly the ḥ is a degradation of ḥ , and not the ḥ a strengthening of ḥ . This point will aid us in recognizing the nature of the Semitic verbal prefixes in general. The ḥḥ occurs very frequently in the inscriptions, as for example:— ḥḥ (ḥḥ , *Fr.* No. LIV.), ḥḥ ; ḥḥ (ḥḥ , *Os.* VIII. 3), ḥḥ (ḥḥ , *Os.* x. 5), ḥḥ (ḥḥ , *H.* 681, 5-6; 682, 9); in the Minaean and Hadramaut dialect ḥḥ (*H.* 257, 1), ḥḥ (*H.* 353, 2; 63, 2), ḥḥ (ḥḥ , *H.* 257, 3).

The voice *Satfa'al* (ḥḥ) answers to the Arabic 10th conj. ḥḥ which occurs also in Ethiopic and Assyrian. The examples of this voice are numerous:— ḥḥ (ḥḥ , *Os.* XVI. 7), ḥḥ (*Cruttenden Sand* 1), ḥḥ (ḥḥ , *H.* 681, 4), ḥḥ (*H.* 51, 2), ḥḥ (*H.* 535, 2).

The last voice is the *Hinfa'al* (ḥḥ), the Arabic

7th conj. ḥḥ . The original ḥ occurs also in Hebrew, especially in the Imperative; only one example of this voice can be produced: ḥḥ (*H.* 237, 7); from this example, belonging to a Minaean text, it may be seen that all the Sabæan dialects agree on this point. This voice is probably the origin of the divine name ḥḥ (*H.* 189, 191, 2, &c.), the root whereof appears to be ḥḥ .

It may be presumed that the emphatic forms *Pa'el* (ḥḥ) and *tafa'al* (ḥḥ), which are very common in Arabic and Ethiopic, existed likewise in Sabæan, as also the voices ḥḥ (ḥḥ) and ḥḥ (ḥḥ) which the Ethiopic has fully developed; but as these delicate shades concern merely the vowels, they are not perceptible in the texts.

As to the prefixed consonants which maintain themselves in Sabæan in an original state, it is important to observe that the reflective is formed by the ḥ alone, without the support of a guttural, whilst the reciprocal form is preceded by an ḥ . This induces to the belief that this form (Arabic 5th conj.), instead of being identical with the Hebrew *Hitpa'el*, as is generally conceived, constitutes a simple and anterior element whence the Hebrew form composed of the causative ḥ and of the reflective ḥ is derived. A similar remark also suggests itself with reference to the 7th Arabic form, which is usually identified with the Hebrew ḥḥ , without considering that it has for its organic form not the ḥ alone, but ḥḥ (ḥḥ = ḥḥ , ḥḥ contracted from ḥḥḥ , &c.), exactly as in Sabæan, that is—a compound formed from the causative ḥ and from a reciprocal ḥ ; accordingly we may ask whether the ḥ of the Arabic *infa'al* represents the enfeeblement of the organic ḥ , or is perhaps merely paragogic (euphonic); and in that case it would represent the simple form, whence the Sabæan and Hebrew forms were derived. The nature of the vowel attached to the personal letters of the Imperfect of this form appears to be in favour of the latter alternative. It is that in the imperfect the personal letters generally have the sound ḥ ;— ḥḥ , ḥḥ , ḥḥ , &c. opposite to the Hebrew ḥ (ḥ), excepting the 2nd (3rd) and 4th forms, in which these letters are pronounced with ḥ :— ḥḥ , ḥḥ , ḥḥ whilst the Hebrew has *sheva*: ḥḥ ; ḥḥ = ḥḥ . It

is evident, accordingly, that if the 5th form were identical with the Hebrew נָתַן the vocalization of the Imperfect would have been يَنْتَبِلُ with a , and not يَنْتَبِلُ with e ; consequently we must consider the Arabic *inf'al* as having only one single preformative, the i , herein resembling the 5th form, which, combining with the particle of the causative, has produced the Hebrew *Hitpa'el*.

In the 10th form likewise, apart from the prosthetic *alef*, which is wanting in Sabæan, it may be observed that the preformative re is composed of the causative o , which supplants the n in the dialects, and of the reflective n , so that this form answers to the Hebrew *Hitpa'el*.

The following table presents a view of the most-used forms in the Semitic languages, and the arrangement of the voices from the simple to the compound:—

	Simple.	Emphatic.	Energetic.
Original theme or Pal נָעַל	נָעַל	נָעַל (Ar. Eth. Sab. ?)	נָעַל
Reflective theme.	נָעַל (Aram. ? Ass.)	נָעַל (Ar. Eth. Sab. ?)	נָעַל (Aram.)
Internal reflective theme.	נָעַל (Arab. Sab. Ass.)		נָעַל (Ass.)
Reciprocal theme	נָעַל (Ar. Ass.)		נָעַל (Ass. ?)
Causative theme	נָעַל (Heb. Sab. Arab. Aram. Eth.)		
	נָעַל (Aram. Ass. Eth. Min. & Hadr. dial.)	נָעַל (Eth. Sab. dial. ?)	נָעַל (Eth. Sab. dial. ?)
Causat. and Refl. theme.	נָעַל (Aram. Ass. Eth. Minæan and Hadr. dial.)	נָעַל (Eth. Sab. dial. ?)	נָעַל (Heb.)
			נָעַל (Eth. Sab. dial.)
Causat. and Recipr. theme.	נָעַל (Heb. Sab.)		
Recipr. and Refl. theme ...	נָעַל (Rabbinic Heb. Ass. Aram.)		

As we have just seen, the Semitic languages use the three letters n , i , and n (o , w) sometimes simply and sometimes combined, in order to form derived voices, for the purpose of indicating an action which strikes by its external effect. These letters, which are visibly pronominal themes, serving also for the inflection of nouns, and constituting a real link between these two categories of words, show that the verb and noun were originally confused in the linguistic conception of the Semites. The most powerful instrument used in these languages to discriminate between the verbal and the nominal idea was the tonic accent, so well conserved in Hebrew, thus: verb—*habâl*, הָבַל "to wound," noun—*hâbel*, הָבֵל "a wound;" verb—*gadal*, גָּדַל "to become great," noun—*gôdel* (*godl*) "greatness;" verb—*gamas*, גָּמַס "to grasp," noun—*gâs* "fist."

The Semitic nations, which manifest so delicate a perception in picturing the movements of the

mind that produce action, have come short as to the manner of indicating the succession of actions. They have not conceived of time as a determined and fixed period, but appear rather to have considered it as a point always receding, which cannot be seized, and which may be spoken of in a relative sense only. Accordingly Semitic verbs possess originally no special designation to distinguish time in the modern sense of the word. From a Semitic point of view the names *Past* and *Future*, applied by indigenous grammarians to the chief verbal inflections, are inaccurate; these forms indicate neither an absolute Past nor an absolute Future; they merely designate a relative succession floating between a distant past and a distant future; the names of *Perfect* and *Imperfect*, denuded of every idea of time, are more convenient. The *Perfect* points out the act as completed in an absolute state, whilst the *Imperfect* designates the same in a

person, they leave us in uncertainty about the personal suffixes of the first and the second person of the Perfect. There is, however, reason to believe that they were γ and η , as in Ethiopic.

To the conjugation of the verbs γ , it is to be observed that the γ is suppressed in the Subjunctive; thus γ (Fr. No. XI. 3), γ (H. 259, 3), γ (Os. IV. 13), from γ , γ , γ . The γ verbs never elide the γ : γ (Ab. I. 5), γ (H. 147, 1), γ (H. 681, 2; 682, 2). It is interesting to find that in the γ verbs the medial γ is retained: γ , γ , γ . It was probably pronounced δ , as in Ethiopic, and did not become δ , as in Arabic. The same analogy with the Ethiopic system is observable also in the γ roots; the

γ remains in γ (H. 76, 1; Os. IV. 5), γ (H. 8, 1), sometimes also γ (H. 44, 2, 3), but the γ is elided before the suffixes beginning with a consonant: γ (Os. XXXIV. 4).

In the Perfect and Imperfect, personal suffixes may be added, as in Arabic. The rule is that in the Perfect the suffix is appended immediately after the third radical; e.g. γ (Os. VIII. 3), γ (H. 681, 4), γ (probably for γ "heard her prayer," H. 681, 7), γ (Os. I. 5), γ (Os. XXXIV. 6). Examples for the simple Imperfect: γ (Minsan dial. = γ), γ (= γ , H. 257, 2-3), γ (= γ , H. 465, 4), γ (= γ , H. 465, 4); for the prolonged Imperfect: γ (H. 680, 2), f. γ (H. 681, 7-8).

Paradigm.

	1st Perfect.		2nd Perfect.	1st Imperfect.	2nd Imperfect.
3rd pers.	γ	γ	γ	γ	γ
3rd p. f.	γ	γ	γ	γ	γ
2nd p.	γ	γ	γ	γ	γ
2nd p. f.	γ	γ	γ	γ	γ
Dual m.	γ	γ	γ	γ	γ
Dual f.	γ	γ	γ	γ	γ
II. 2.	γ	γ	γ	γ	γ
II. Causative	γ	γ	γ	γ	γ
III. Internal Reflective	γ	γ	γ	γ	γ
IV. External Reflective	γ	γ	γ	γ	γ
V. Causative and Reflective	γ	γ	γ	γ	γ
VI. Causative and Reciprocal	γ	γ	γ	γ	γ

With Suffixes.

IV.	γ
V.	γ
VI.	γ
1st Precative	γ
2nd Precative	γ
Passive	γ

as well as many other inflections, owes its existence to the degradation of entire words gradually incorporated into the terms they are intended to inflect.

The external plural seldom occurs in the absolute state; it is indicated by the terminations ך, ם, and ן. In the names for the decades the ך occurs constantly, e.g. עשר 20 (*Wr.* 5), שנים (*H. G.* 1, 10) or עשרים (*H.* 199, 1) 40, שבע 70 (*H.* 3, 4). The letter ם is probably the characteristic sign of the plural in the other words: רחמים (*H.* 3, 3) 'merciful (gods)'. The ן of the plural does not disappear before another termination, e.g. (ה)בית 'the houses' (*H.* 657, 2; *Ab.* I. 11), (ה)בית (*H.* 373, 4).

The plural in *-di* נִי occurs even in words not terminating with *n* in the singular (סִימָה (Os. xxxv. 6), (מִי)מִינִי (H. 63, 5), סִימָה (H. 169, 2), (מִי)מִינִי (H. 484, 9), and with internal modifications: סִימָה (Os. xxxi. 3), מִינִי (H. 51, 7), from סִי (Os. xx. 9) and מִי (Os. xi. 3). The reduplication takes place in מִינִי the *Alilat* of Herodotus, originally מִי *Illos*, the Semitic *Kronos*, then by extension 'god.' The Minæan texts often show מִי, e.g. (מִי)מִינִי (H. 666), (מִי)מִינִי (H. 361, 2; 362, 2, 3), (מִי)מִינִי (H. 395, 2), (מִי)מִינִי (ib. 403, 2).

The various forms of the internal plural are not distinguishable in the consonantal writing; the form occurring most is **עָשׂוּ** (**أَفْعَلُوا**, **أَفْعَلُوا**) (**עָשׂוּ** (*Os.* XXXI. 3), (**עָשׂוּ** (*H.* 468, 3), **עָשׂוּ** (*Pr.* XLV. 2), (**עָשׂוּ** (*Os.* IV. 14), (**עָשׂוּ** (*ib.* XIII. 8); **עָשׂוּ** (*Os.* XVIII. 5) probably = **עָשׂוּ**, *aswuf*. There are also examples for the plural of the plural: (**עָשׂוּ** (*H.* 666), (**עָשׂוּ** (*Os.* XIII. 8), (**עָשׂוּ** (*ib.* XX. 3).

The *yod* is the characteristic for the *status constructivus* of the external plurals, so that graphically the plural and the dual are both the same, e.g. **יָד** (*Os.* XVIII. 3), **(יָ)יָדָי** (*Os.* IX. 1), **יָדָי** (*Os.* XXXV. 5) **יָדָי וְיָדָי** 'the gods and goddesses of...' (*Os.* XXIX. 6). The *yod* is sometimes supplanted by a **ו**, e.g. **יָד** (*Os.* IX. 2, &c.), **יָדָי וְיָדָי** (*ib.* I. 11-12). It may be seen that no regard for cases exists, contrary to the usage of the Arabs. It seems also that the use of the form **יָד** is limited only to the names of tribes, like **יָד וְיָדָי** (*Os.* I. 1; IV. 1), **יָדָי וְיָדָי** (*ib.* IX. 2; XI. 3), **יָדָי וְיָדָי** (*ib.* XVIII. 2), &c.

The Arab grammarians, who were struck by the termination in *u* of many Hemyaritic and indigenous proper nouns, have justly considered

it as the apocope of '*quod*,' thus imparting to the name to which it is added an indefinite sense; in short, the *u* is a sign of indetermination.

The Saltean minimation in general follows the same rules with the Arabic *tawwin*, e.g. שָׁמַשׁ (שָׁמַשׁ, Os. x. 1) = ^{Su}שָׁמַשׁ (Ab. 1. 5) = Heb. שָׁמַשׁ; אֶחָד (Os. I. 11) = ^{Su}אֶחָד, ^{Su}אֶחָד = ^{Su}אֶחָד, ^{Su}אֶחָד (H. 478, 16), = ^{Su}אֶחָד, (עֶשֶׂר = *ibid.*) ^{Su}עֶשֶׂר, ^{Su}עֶשֶׂר (ib.) = ^{Su}עֶשֶׂר, ^{Su}עֶשֶׂר (ib.) = ^{Su}עֶשֶׂר, ^{Su}עֶשֶׂר (H. 681, 8) = ^{Su}עֶשֶׂר, ^{Su}עֶשֶׂר = ^{Su}עֶשֶׂר, and the diminutives אֶחָד = ^{Su}אֶחָד, אֶחָד (Os. xiii. 1) = ^{Su}אֶחָד, ^{Su}אֶחָד = ^{Su}אֶחָד, and the internal plurals אֶחָד = ^{Su}אֶחָד, אֶחָד = ^{Su}אֶחָד.

The following do not always receive the *m* in conformity with the Arabic *tanwin*: 1st—Proper nouns terminating in *κ* and *ι*: e.g. *σάβ* 'Saba,' *κῆν* 'Kāne,' *κῆμιν* 'Kaminakum,' *κάρνον* 'Karnon,' and the divine name *ἀστάρτε*, the Semitic Astarte; 2nd—The elative *σῆμα* = *شما*, *σῆμα*, *σῆμα*; 3rd—Proper nouns resembling one of the inflections of the Imperfect, or rather the third person of the Perfect: *σῆμα* or *σῆμα*, *σῆμα*, *σῆμα*, *σῆμα*, *σῆμα*, *σῆμα*, *σῆμα*, *σῆμα*, *σῆμα*; 4th—Proper nouns terminating in *ι*: *κατάβανι*, *γεδρανῖτα*, *γεβανῖτα*. These rules nevertheless have many exceptions, and the use or omission of the *m* appears to depend on local usage. Thus we meet with *σῆμα*, *σῆμα* 'Vodona,' *σῆμα* 'Hadrantaut' by the side of *σῆμα*, *σῆμα*; the omission of *m* is so frequent that it is superfluous to give further examples.

As a sign of indetermination the *wa* must naturally fall away in the *status constructivus*, where the first word is closely connected with the following one, and thus obtains a determinate sense: *wa'at wa* (H. 257, 1) 'the house, the temple of Attar,' *sa'at wa'a* 'the peoples of Saba,' *wa'a qas* 'the kings of Ma'in, i.e. of the Minaeans;' nor can the *wa* occur before the personal suffixes *wa'u*, *wa'nu* &c.

The linguistic problem here presents itself: Does the Sabæan language possess a definite article, like nearly all the northern Semitic idioms, or has it none, like the Ethiopic? Osiander after a minute investigation decided that the Sabæan

of verbs in Aramaean; this π appears to arise from an original π .

2nd— π in nouns. This is the determinative article and denominative sign, and in verbs the causative; voice $\pi\pi$.

3rd— π , in nouns the sign of indetermination; in verbs the sign of participles and of verbal nouns.

4th— π , π in nouns the sign of the plural and the demonstrative article; and in verbs the sign of reciprocity and of emphatic action.

5th— π , π in nouns the neuter (feminine) gender; in verbs the intransitive, the passive, and the optative.

Pronouns.

The number of pronominal themata is very small, and consists generally of monosyllables, excepting however the nominal and verbal roots, which are in the Semitic languages always biliteral or triliteral. In these essentially polysyllabic languages, the pronominal themes tend by the force of analogy to combine with each other and to escape from monosyllabism, so that they rarely occur in a simple state.

In the Sabæan texts the pronoun π , corresponding to the Arabic ذ , Hebrew π , Phœnician π , &c., does not occur isolated when it has a demonstrative sense, but only combined with π ; another demonstrative pronoun which likewise does not occur isolated; thus we get the compound π , which reminds us of the Arabic ذ (ذ) and the Aramaic π , π e.g. $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 615, 14; *Fr.* 1.), 'this inscription,' $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 602, 5; 603, 5, 6; 604, 2, 3), 'this idol,' $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 252, 6), 'this door,' $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 48, 12), $\pi\pi$ π (*Os.* VII. 2; VIII. 2; IX. 3-4, &c.), 'this tablet (document, monument),' $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 438, 1), 'this construction.' In the feminine π = π π of the other Semitic idioms makes its appearance, e.g. $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 149, 15), 'this agreement(?),' $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 217), 'this plate (plank)?' $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 51, 17), 'this decision.'

Like the northern Semitic languages, the Sabæan also makes use of π (= π) for the remote demonstrative pronoun; it occurs either isolated or combined with π . Of the first case Halévy knows only the example $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 49, 16), 'that elucidation there,' but the compound form is more frequent: $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 203, 2), 'that construction there,' $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 49, 11) $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 149, 3).

In the pronouns $\pi\pi$, $\pi\pi$ and $\pi\pi$ ($\pi\pi$) the final π appears to be purely enclitical, and not a feminine termination. Of $\pi\pi$ only a few examples exist: $\pi\pi$ $\pi\pi$ (*Hal.* 49, 8), 'that land there,' $\pi\pi$ $\pi\pi$ (*ib.* 48, 5), 'this village (?) there,' $\pi\pi$ $\pi\pi$ (*ib.* 62, 9).

For the plural demonstrative the word π is used, which becomes π in the Minæan texts. It occurs sometimes isolated, and sometimes combined with π e.g. $\pi\pi$ π (*H.* 196, 5; 191, 10; 243, 13) 'these flagstones or slabs,' $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 352, 3) 'these idols.' In $\pi\pi$ of the example $\pi\pi$ $\pi\pi$ (*Hal.* 465, 2) 'these localities' the final π is only enclitical; and the same is also the case with the π added to the remote plural demonstrative pronoun π in the example $\pi\pi$ $\pi\pi$ 'These fields there' (*Os.* IV. lines 14 and 19) which occurs twice. π itself is not yet perfectly fixed, on account of the bad state of the texts. Accordingly we cannot say anything as yet about feminine pronouns of remoteness, as the results hitherto obtained are confined only to the masculines, which are summarized as follows:—

Singular $\pi\pi$ and $\pi\pi$ (?) that, there.

Plural $\pi\pi$, and $\pi\pi$ those.

The Semitic languages have but one root to indicate the subject in an indefinite manner, namely, by π , the vowel of which is in Hebrew expressed by π , and in almost all the other languages of the same family by π . From its nature it designates objects having no salient individuality, and is applied to things, but must, in order to become personal, be combined with other pronouns. In Hebrew it is composed of the simple radical π , and produces by phonetic transformations the form π , which, whilst the cognate idioms have selected the

complex π , becomes π , π . The Sabæan follows this latter method of combination, but presents a very singular phonetic peculiarity, namely, the change of π into π , so that π becomes π ; perhaps this use is restricted to the Minæan dialect, where it occurs very frequently. In the following examples, however, the lection is uncertain, on account of the mutilated state of the texts: $\pi\pi$ π π (*Hal.* 257, 3), 'he who retires, he who deranges,' and $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 535, 4), 'he who overturns.' There is also an example in which the π is not changed, $\pi\pi$ π (*Hal.* 259, 2), and this case occurs especially in common Sabæan (*Hal.* 242, 2; 343, 3; 344, 29). For the simple π there is one example which is uncertain:

שָׁמַר (Hal. 188, 5); but it seems to exist under the form of ש in שָׁמַר joined to the Perfect (*Os.* x. 3; xiii. 3, 10; xxvii. 3) or to the Imperfect (*ibid.* xiii. 10); this word appears to Halévy to represent the Arabic locution $\text{سَمَرَ} (\text{سَمَر})$. Thus the phrase $\text{שָׁמַר שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{Os. xiii. 3})$, compared with the variant $\text{שָׁמַר שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{ibid. xiii. 5})$, may be translated 'in the demand which he demanded of him.' This meaning suits also the other passages. The ש may also be doubled to express the vague idea 'whatever may be, whoever,' e.g. $\text{שָׁמַר שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{Hal. 149, 10})$ 'of any damage whatever.' This curious word suggests the striking manner of the Hebrew שָׁמַר or שָׁמַר used as a substantive in the sense of 'something'; the medial ש appears to be the copula 'and,' and the whole compound properly means 'what and what.'

Some of these pronouns are also used as relatives. First, ש is prefixed to verbs:— שָׁמַר (*Proterius* in ii. 2) 'he who would break it,' שָׁמַר (*Os.* xxvii. 2-3) 'in whom he has confidence.' In lieu of ש sometimes ש also occurs, e.g. שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר 'that which he asked from him.' When ש is placed before substantive or proper nouns, it always means 'of, from,' and must never be taken in the sense of the Arabic سَمَرَ 'endowed with,' as Osiander fancied. The ש serves exclusively to express the periphrasis of the genitive where the object is to be pointed out with greater emphasis: $\text{שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{Fr. xlv. 3})$ 'King of Saba and of Raidan,' $\text{שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{Hal. 465, 3})$ 'A'ttar of Yahraq,' $\text{שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{Hal. 233, 10-11})$ 'A'bd son of Ammikirib from Khadlân of (belonging to) the people of Gaban.' It serves also to form adjectives: $\text{שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{Hal. 442, 3})$ 'A'ttar, Egyptian, and A'thtar, Oriental; for the feminine ש is used, e.g. $\text{שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{Os. xv. 1})$ 'The Marthadates,' $\text{שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{ibid. xiii. 1, 2})$ 'Halkm the Beni-A'bdess (i.e. she who belongs to the Beni A'bd) of Raotan.' The ש is sometimes supplanted by ש , which is evidently an alteration of the demonstrative ש : for instance, $\text{שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{Os. vii. 5}) = \text{שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר}$ 'Almaqah of Hirrân.' The demonstrative ש is also used as a relative, and is then treated as a singular, 'he who': $\text{שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{Hal. 349, 12})$ 'he who causes to fructify,' $\text{שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{ibid. 6})$ 'he who accelerates (f),' $\text{שָׁמַר בְּשָׁמַר} (\text{ibid. 344, 26})$ 'he who has.' This remarkable fact occurs in vulgar Arabic and in Tigreh, which proves once more that the popular dialects sometimes retain an-

cient elements consigned to oblivion in the literary language.

As to the origin of ש , which its biliteral form ranges by the side of ש , it is doubtless not a properly so called pronominal root, because in that case they both ought to be decomposed into two separately used monosyllables, which never takes place with them. No alternative remains but to consider them as derived from verbal roots forming a kind of infinitive. In fact the verb ש 'to be' exists in Aramæan, and with a slight change in Hebrew ש ; Halévy thinks that the original type of ש is the Ethiopic ሠ , Tigreh ሠ Amh. ሠ 'to be, to exist,' whence apparently the Hebrew particles ש 'in this direction' (properly 'existing,' understood 'place') and ש (= ש) 'in this direction' are derived. Each of these two synonymous verbs has furnished a remote demonstrative, which has, in its turn, become transformed into a definite article: $\text{ש} = \text{ש}$ in Hebrew and $\text{ሠ} = \text{ሠ}$ in Arabic; the ש is known still to maintain itself in the pronunciation of the Bedavis of the Najd.

Let us pass to the personal pronouns. Here our texts are the best refutation of the preconceived idea, broached by numerous psychologists, according to which the Semites in general are an entirely personal and subjective race. A supposition like this has no other basis except the justifiable extension of the Arab national character to the entire Semitic race. It is undeniable that the eight hundred inscriptions as yet known are all conceived in the third person, and present no trace either of the first or second person, except in certain cases where the use of the first person is indispensable. The same use occurs again in the Hebrew writing and in the Phœnician texts, where the pronoun of the first person is not only rare, but purposely avoided by circumlocution; thus we read: שָׁמַר (= שָׁמַר) for ש (*His.* 1, 2), שָׁמַר (= שָׁמַר) for ש (*Sid.* 3), &c.

Moreover, the personal pronouns of the Semitic languages present a phenomenon worthy of the attention of physiologists just as much as of linguists, and which puts the original objectivity of the Semitic race in the best light:—Whilst the Aryan idioms possess a radical ah (am), az (em), ad (am) for the first, and a tu (tu) for the second person, the Semitic languages possess nothing of the kind, so that they are obliged to

have recourse to combinations of demonstrative roots, the personal signification whereof is rather accidental than natural. This becomes clear from the analysis of אֲנִי , אַתָּה , וְאַתָּה , the organic form of all of which is אֲנִי , meaning literally 'is qui (est) is'; אַתָּה , אַתָּה is composed of אֲנִי 'is qui (est) id.' Let us add that the complete form of these pronouns is אַתָּה (אַתָּה). The final ה is radical, as is proved by the plural אַתָּה , אַתָּה , אַתָּה common to all the Semitic languages, and where the ה has maintained itself under the form of ה . For the second person the originality of the ה becomes also evident by comparing the possessive suffix ה 'thus,' although the original ה exists only in Egyptian: ה (Hal. 450, 3) 'posuit eandem, ipsum' ה (ib. 437, 2) 'posuit eosdem' (conf. Hal. 259, 3, 4; ib. 478, 17); I would here mention the Persian کس 'aliquis,' which Halévy does not notice, but which is at least in the writing, if not in the meaning, nearly the same with ה and may have something to do with it. From the above analysis he concludes that אֲנִי is composed of אֲנִי 'is qui (est) idem is,' and אֲנִי from אֲנִי 'is qui (est) id, idem,' lastly אֲנִי from אֲנִי 'is qui (est) idem qui + pl.'

In consequence of the too impersonal locations of the inscriptions, it is impossible to ascertain whether the Hebrew form of the first person אֲנִי (אֲנִי) was in use among the Sabæans. This appears improbable, because these forms are also unusual in the cognate languages. As far as the second person is concerned, it could not be different from the form אַתָּה , אַתָּה common in the Semitic family. The isolated pronoun of the third person is identical with the demonstrative הוּא (הוּא), but it is not known whether the feminine was היא (היא), as in the sister languages, or whether it resembled the demonstrative form היא peculiar to the Sabæan. The masculine plural הם occurs in several passages (Hal. 446, 2; ib. 344, 18; 346, 4), and the analogy of the other Semitic languages presupposes the certain existence of the compound הן (= הן) for the feminine.

No possessive suffixes except those of the third person are to be met with: ה for the singular masculine, and ה for the same in the Minæan dialect; the ה often disappears in writing: ה (Os. 1. 1), ה (Hal. 478, 1), ה (Hal. 187, 2) 'his son, exactly like the Persian پسرش in پسرش ; in ה (Os. XXIX. 7) 'his eye' the second ה is re-

dundant. No example of the feminine exists, as in Persian, and perhaps none ever did, although Halévy says it must certainly have been ה , ה . Instead of the simple ה , sometimes ה , ה , ה occur: ה = ה (Os. 1. 5) 'in his request,' ה ה ה ה ה (Hal. 478, 10) 'may his country (lit. earth), his people, and his town perish (lit. die).' This interesting form, which it is impossible to take for a plural suffix, must be considered as composed of ה prolonged by means of the particles ה and ה ; respectively serving as the indefinite and the definite article. The same occurs here and there in Hebrew, where ה , ה occur for ה and for ה . This is confirmed also in Phœnician; for which see Schlottmann in *Z. d. D. M. G.* 1870, p. 406, &c.

List of the Pronouns from Sabæan texts.

Demonstrative Pronouns.

Singular.	Plural.
ה m. ה f. this.	הם , היא , הן these
ה this.	ה .
ה , ה that.	ה those.
ה that.	ה , ה those.
ה that.	

Interrogative Pronouns.

ה , ה who?	ה , (ה) what?
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Relative Pronouns.

ה , ה he who, of, from.	ה f. she who, of, from.
ה he of, he from.	
ה he who.	

Isolated Personal Pronouns.

ה he.	ה they.
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Suffixed Personal Pronouns.

ה , ה } his.	ה } their.
ה , ה } his.	ה } their.
ה , ה } his.	ה } their.

Dual: ה .

Numerals, Measures, and Chronology.

The Sabæan like the Arabic numerals have a double form, the one being the simple radical word, and the other presenting, as in certain Arabic numbers, the addition of a ה in the masculine, whilst reserving the simple form for the feminine:—

1 ה (Hal. 446, 3.)	ה (Hal. 598, 2.)
	ה (Hal. 667, 1-2.)
	ה (N. H. 1.)
2 ה (Hal. 353, 4; Wr. 5.)	ה (Hal. 598, 5.)
	ה (Hal. 667, 2.)

3	חֲלֵה (Hal. 50.)	חֲלֵה
	חֲלֵה (Hal. 3, 4.)	חֲלֵה (Fr. LL. חֲלֵה Fr. LIV.)
4	אַרְבַּע (Hal. 412, 2.)	אַרְבַּע (Hal. 148, 10.)
	אַרְבַּע (Os. XXXI. 1, 2.)	אַרְבַּע
5	(חֲמִישֵׁה.)	חֲמִישֵׁה (Hal. 152, 6-7, 8-9.)
6	שֵׁשֶׁה (Hal. 192, 1.)	שֵׁשֶׁה (Hal. 192, 1; 256, 2)
		שֵׁשֶׁה (H. G.)
7	(שֶׁבַע)	שֶׁבַע (Hal. 192, 1.)
8	חֲמִישֵׁה (Hal. 51, 19.)	חֲמִישֵׁה (Os. 1. 8.)
9	חֲמִישֵׁה (Hal. 648, 3-4.)	חֲמִישֵׁה
10	עֲשָׂרָה (Hal. 125, 14-15.)	עֲשָׂרָה (Hal. 152, 5.)
17		עֲשָׂרָה שֶׁבַע (Hal. 199, 1.)
20	עֲשָׂרָה	
	עֲשָׂרָה (Os. XXXI. 1-2.)	
30	חֲלֵה (Hal. 485, 3.)	
40	אַרְבַּע (Hal. 48, 10; H. G.)	
	אַרְבַּע (Hal. 199, 1)	
50	(חֲמִישֵׁה.)	
60	שֵׁשֶׁה (Hal. 352, 3.)	
70	שֶׁבַע (Hal. 3, 4.)	
80	חֲמִישֵׁה (Hal. 412, 2, 3; 661, 2.)	
	חֲמִישֵׁה (Hal. 384, 3.)	
	חֲמִישֵׁה (Hal. 466.)	
90	(חֲמִישֵׁה.)	
100	שֵׁשֶׁה (Hal. 598, 4; 466.)	
	שֵׁשֶׁה (Hal. 3, 4.)	
1000	חֲמִישֵׁה (Hal. 595, 1.)	
	חֲמִישֵׁה (Hal. 49, 3, 4.)	
	חֲמִישֵׁה (Hal. 526, 2.)	

The variety presented by the numerals in the above table arises chiefly from the addition of the terminations *ע* and *ה*. In the Minean dialect the *ע* of *חֲלֵה* is elided, and the word becomes *חֲלֵה*, it appears, with the reduplication of the *ח* absolutely, as in the Hebrew *חֲמִישֵׁה* for *חֲמִישֵׁה*. The pronunciation *חֲמִישֵׁה* for *חֲמִישֵׁה* seems to be a peculiarity of the Hadramaut dialect. The fluctuation between *חֲמִישֵׁה* and *חֲמִישֵׁה* is observable in ordinary Sabæan, and the same occurs also in *שֵׁשֶׁה*, *שֶׁבַע*, *חֲמִישֵׁה* (חֲמִישֵׁה); lastly *חֲמִישֵׁה* is contracted to *חֲמִישֵׁה* in the inscription of Hish-G'harab, which is probably one of the least ancient texts.

There are but few examples of derived numerals; the radical numbers serve also as ordinals, e.g. *חֲמִישֵׁה יוֹם*, 'on the eighth day.' In compound numbers an *י* is added to the first numeral, thus:—*חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה שָׁנָה* (Hal. 3, 4), 'of (the year) 573;'

חֲמִישֵׁה שָׁנָה חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה, 'of the year 640' (Munzinger's copy, H. G.)

Of multiplicatives Halévy found only *חֲמִישֵׁה*, which appears to him to mean 'two pairs' in *חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה* (Hal. 375, 2), 'two pairs of planks?' written defectively for *חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה*, which is suggested by the Hebrew *חֲמִישֵׁה*. Among the fractions *חֲמִישֵׁה* (Hal. 200, 2), 'one-third,' occurs in conformity with the Arabic *ثلث*. The phrase *חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה* (Hal. 667, 2) appears to mean 'two portions of ten,' because the word *חֲמִישֵׁה*, strictly 'hand,' implies also 'part, portion,' and this location proves to a certainty that the Sabæans used the decimal system in their measures of length, which will be mentioned further on.

Like all civilized nations of antiquity, the Sabæans made use of numeral figures, but their system of notation differs from that of the other Semitic nations. The figures are always placed between two ladder-like strokes larger than the other characters, to avoid confusion. As in some inscriptions the numbers are not only given in figures, but, for greater security, also in letters, they can be identified with tolerable facility. Up to 4 the numbers are represented only by perpendicular strokes, as in the Roman notation, and the large numbers are, as far as possible, represented by the initials of the words used to designate them in the written language.*

The inscriptions furnish the following precious but insufficient information concerning the measures and money current among the Sabæans:—Among them, as among other Semitic nations, the cubit appears to have been the unit of measurement: *חֲמִישֵׁה* (pl. *חֲמִישֵׁה*) Hebrew *חֲמִישֵׁה*, pl. *חֲמִישֵׁה*. Thus *חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה* (Hal. 199, 1), 17 cubits; *חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה* (ib. 47) 47 cubits; *חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה* (Hal. 256, 2), 6 cubits; *חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה* (Hal. 200, 2), one-third of a cubit; *חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה* (Hal. 413, 1; 417, 2), 5 cubits. Among the divisions of the cubit the finger is twice mentioned in the texts: *חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה* (Hal. 667, 1-2), one finger; *חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה* (ib. 661, 2), eight fingers. Then comes the *חֲמִישֵׁה*, which was a measure of capacity among the Jews. This fact results from the following passage:—*חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה* (Hal. 215, 2), half a cubit and five *gab*. The foot appears to have been designated by the word *חֲמִישֵׁה* (= *חֲמִישֵׁה* int. pl. *חֲמִישֵׁה*), from *חֲמִישֵׁה* 'recessit:' *חֲמִישֵׁה חֲמִישֵׁה* (Hal. 352, 3) sixty feet (?). A sub-division of the foot occurs

* The whole system up to the number 4000 will be easily understood from the plate, page 26.

in the word נָחַל (*pl. inf. נָחַל*), apparently representing the Arabic نَحْل , 'nail,' in order to indicate the inch. The passage in which this measure occurs is $\text{כֶּסֶם אֶבֶן אֶחָד מֵאָה וְאַרְבָּעִים אֲוֹנָה}$ (*Hal. 199, 1*), 47 inches.

Among the weights used by the Sabaeans only one can be recognized with any probability; it is סָל in $\text{וְהָיָה סָל כֶּסֶם אֶבֶן אֶחָד מֵאָה וְאַרְבָּעִים אֲוֹנָה}$ (*Hal. 148, 7*). It is possible that some current coin was designated by סָל *inf. pl.* [סָל], thus $\text{אֶבֶן אֶחָד מֵאָה וְאַרְבָּעִים אֲוֹנָה}$ (*Hal. 152, 8-9*), 'five sela.' The word סָל means 'rock, stone,' and designates in the Rabbinical writings the weight of half a drachm or זוזא, זוז . Other names, apparently designating weights and measures, are of a still more questionable character. These are:—

1st. The מָא , occurring in the phrase $\text{אֶבֶן מָא אֶחָד מֵאָה וְאַרְבָּעִים אֲוֹנָה}$ (*Hal. 599, 2*), 'for one azla;'

2nd. The סָל , which occurs in *Hal. 148, 8-9, Ab. 154, 18, and Ab. 151, 10*; and lastly,

3rd. The הַיָּלַיִם , mentioned twice in the same inscription: $\text{חֲמִשָּׁה הַיָּלַיִם}$ (*Hal. 152, 6, 7*), 'five haialaym,' and $\text{עֲשָׂרִים הַיָּלַיִם}$ (*Ab. 152, 5*), 'ten haialaym.'

The words apparently indicating weights and measures are these:—

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. מָא cubit. | 7. סָל (<i>inf. pl. סָל</i>). |
| 2. [סָל] finger. | 8. [סָל]. |
| 3. [סָל] קָבֵל . | 9. [סָל]. |
| 4. פֶּדֶם (<i>inf. pl. פֶּדֶם</i>) foot? | 10. [סָל]. |
| 5. נָחַל (<i>inf. pl. נָחַל</i>) nail, | 11. נָחַל (<i>Hal. 50, Fr. 9</i>)? |
| 6. נָחַל . | 12. נָחַל (<i>Os. 1, 8</i>). |

The Sabaean year began, it seems, towards the autumnal equinox, because the word קָרִיב , which designates the year, means strictly the autumn, i.e. the rainy season, in opposition to the other half of the year, called קָרִיב , from the root קָרַח = קָרַח , 'to germinate, to produce plants,' during which the earth is covered with vegetation. The months are lunar, as may be concluded from the name חֹדֶס , 'month,' properly 'moon;' accordingly they must have been in the same position as the Muhammadans still are in our times, whose months rotate through every season, and do not serve to ascertain it. The names of the ten months discovered in the texts are as follows:—

- קָרִיב [קָרִיב] (*Hal. 3, 4*).
 קָרִיב [קָרִיב] (*H. G. end*), Munzinger's copy קָרִיב .
 קָרִיב [קָרִיב] (*H. 51, 19, 20*).
 קָרִיב [קָרִיב] (*Ab. 51, 10, 11*).
 קָרִיב [קָרִיב] (*Ab. 48, 11, 13*).

קָרִיב [קָרִיב] (*H. 188, 7*).

קָרִיב [קָרִיב] (*Ab. 5*).

קָרִיב [קָרִיב] (*Ab. 152, 15*).

קָרִיב [קָרִיב] (*Ab. 16*).

קָרִיב [קָרִיב] (*Ab. 149, 14*).

On the assumption that the names of the months actually corresponded with the seasons they etymologically designate, Halévy supposes that the month קָרִיב must, according to its name, have fallen in autumn, and that חֹדֶס , designating greenness, began after the cessation of the rains, when everything becomes green. The expression חֹדֶס קָרִיב means, no doubt, 'harvest,' חֹדֶס being derived from חָרַח = חָרַח Aramaean, 'to harvest;' and the first harvest is in the Wadi-Saba collected in March; from the form of this word the conclusion may be drawn that there was also another month bearing nearly the form חֹדֶס קָרִיב , 'month of the second harvest,' the latter taking place about three months afterwards. The name חֹדֶס קָרִיב means probably 'raising of buildings.' The months חֹדֶס קָרִיב and חֹדֶס קָרִיב appear to be of mythological origin; חֹדֶס קָרִיב means 'of the fathers,' and suggests the month מָא of the Hebrews; it was perhaps sacred to the deceased. The other name חֹדֶס קָרִיב seems to be composed of חֹדֶס , 'force,' and of חֹדֶס , the abbreviation of the divine name חֹדֶס , the Astarte of the northern Semites. This is not extraordinary among a people like the Sabaeans, who named certain days after celebrated personages, perhaps revered as demigods. For example:—

חֹדֶס קָרִיב (*Hal. 50, 1, 2*), "The day of Ha' Harmat?"

חֹדֶס קָרִיב (*Ab. 1, 5*), "On the day Naof."

חֹדֶס קָרִיב (*Hal. 485, 5*), "On the day Yta'el Riyam and his son Tobba'-karib, kings of Ma'in."

חֹדֶס קָרִיב (*Hal. 504, 3, 4*), "On the day of their masters Waqhael the saviour, and his son Eliafa the just, kings of Ma'in."

חֹדֶס קָרִיב (*Hal. 145, 6, 7; 146, 6, 7; 148, 12, 23*), "On the day of Ydhmarmalik and of Watrael."

חֹדֶס קָרִיב (*Hal. 153, 8, 9*), "On the day of Ydhmarmalik and of Watrael."

חֹדֶס קָרִיב (*Hal. 153, 8, 9*), "On the day of Ydhmarmalik and by A'ttar."

חֹדֶס קָרִיב (*Hal. 209, 2*), "On the day of Abyada' and of Yta'el."

חֹדֶס קָרִיב (*Hal. 522*,

2), 'On the day of Yta'el the just, and of his son the saviour, kings of Ma'in.'

The Sabæan texts are never dated according to the year of a king. There are two different ways of fixing dates. The first and more recent relates to a previous time which had, in consequence of some memorable event, become the commencement of a new era. Hitherto only two inscriptions bearing traces of an era are known; namely, the third inscription of Halévy's collection, occurring also in Fresnel under the same number, and the inscription of Hija G'harab. The first bears the phrase *ṣṭ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ*...*ḥṣṣ*, '573 Hayw.' The opinion of Fresnel that the word *ṣṭ* means 'may you live,' and was merely added that the phrase should not terminate with the word *ḥṣṣ* 'hundred,' which resembles the word *ṣṭ* 'to die,' is too fantastic to be tenable; the only thing certain is that *ṣṭ*, written also *ḥṣṣ*, is a very frequent Sabæan name, and appears here to be that of the engraver. The beginning of this era may be approximatively fixed about 115 years before Christ. This date results from the inscription of Hija G'harab, which is of the year 640 (*ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ*), and is the work of a prince escaped from the Ethiopians after their victory over the last Hemyarite king (see *Z. d. D. M. G.* XXVI. p. 436, the translation by Levy of this inscription). As, however, this last-mentioned event, according to the best chronologies, took place A.D. 525, it is clear that the era in question cannot be of later origin than 115 years before Christ. At that time the Sabæan empire was still in its power. A century afterwards the rumour of the great riches accumulated by the Sabæans had spread as far as Rome, and made such an impression as to tempt the cupidity of Augustus.

The Sabæans, like the Assyrio-Babylonians, instead of fixing dates by an era of long duration, generally preferred to determine them by the use of eponyms; the years were accordingly named after certain celebrated personages, probably kings and governors. It may be seen that in order to designate years the Sabæans used the same system as for indicating remarkable days. Our historical knowledge is so imperfect that these kinds of dates are closed letters to us; but it is possible that when the great ruins in Yemen are excavated, eponymic tablets, like those of the Assyrians, may be dis-

covered. For the present this way of dating may be elucidated by quoting the following ten passages from the texts:—

1. *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* (Os. i. 9-11), 'In the year of A'mmikaṛib, son of Samhikaṛib, son of Hatfaru.'

2. *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* (Os. x. 4, 5), 'In the year of Samhikaṛib, son of Tobba'kerib, son of Faḥḥam.'

3. *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* (Os. xiii. 12, 13), 'In the year of Waddadel, son of Yaqaḥmalik Kebir Khalil (or the great, the well-beloved).'

4. *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* (Os. xiv. 5, 6), 'In the year of Samhikaṛib, son of Tobba'kerib, son of Haḥḥmat.'

5. *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* (Os. xxxii. 3) '... son of Wahbél Yahat, king of Saba.'

6. *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* (Os. xvi. 9-10), 'In the year of Nabḥaḥḥ, son of A'mamir.'

7. *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* (Hal. 48, 12, 13) 'Of the year of...Karib, son of Nishakurayb, son of Faḥḥam.'

8. *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* (Hal. 51, 10, 11), 'Of the year of Ba'ttar, son of Haḥḥmat.'

9. *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* (Hal. 51, 19, 20), 'Of the year of Nishakurib, son of Kabir Khalil.'

10. *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* (Ab. i. 5-7), 'In the year of Samhia'li, son of Elasharh, son of Samhia'li.'

These dates are real eponyms, which do not necessarily refer to the reigning king; as is clearly proved from the inscription of Abyan, which was engraved during the reign of *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ* *ḥṣṣ*, Tobba' Shorabbil, and is nevertheless dated from the year of Samhia'li II.

Particles.

By particles are meant the words serving to determine the mutual relation of the members of a phrase, and also that of whole phrases. Some particles are nouns which have lost their original signification, by a process analogous to that which produced the names of the numerals; but others show the original nouns in a more or less mutilated form, suggesting the formation of the pronouns. The disbelief of Halévy in the existence of pronominal roots in the Semitic languages has already been mentioned, and he is still less disposed to admit an independent original for the monoliteral prepositions, e.g. *ʾ*, *ʾ*, *ʾ*, and the copulative *ʾ*, as has already been explained in the chapter on pronouns.

The Sabæan particles are either prefixes or isolated words; the first category comprises the particles 𐩦, 𐩧, 𐩨, 𐩩, 𐩪, among which 𐩦, 𐩧, 𐩨 accept the possessive suffixes.

𐩦 (N. H. VIII. Os. I. 7, &c.). 𐩧 (Fr. LVI. 2 &c.).
𐩨 (Hal. 48, 3)? 𐩩 (Hal. 51, 14).
𐩪 (Os. XVII. 11-12). 𐩫 (Hal. 681, 5).
𐩬 (Hal. 466)? 𐩭 (Os. XIII. 11).
𐩮 (Hal. 682, 8). 𐩯 (Hal. 412, 3).

As to the use of these particles: The preposition 𐩦, joined either to nouns or to possessive pronouns, has the same meanings as in the other Semitic languages, e.g.—

1st. *In, at, on*, indicating the time, place, or the state of a thing or of an action, e.g. 𐩦 𐩬 𐩬 (Hal. DXX. 9), 'in the wall of the town of Qarnu;' 𐩦 𐩬 𐩬 𐩬 (Hal. 145, 6-7) 'on the day of Ydhmarmalik and of Watrael;' 𐩦 𐩬 (Fr. LVI. 2) 'in peace;' 𐩦 𐩬 (Crutt. I. 5) 'in, with agreement.'

2nd. *By, with*, designating the person or thing by the aid whereof the act is done. In this sense 𐩦 is often used at the end of inscriptions in order to invoke important personages, notably divinities, e.g. 𐩦 𐩬 𐩬 (Hal. 144, 8-9), 'by the grace of Waddm and Yda'simhu.' Instead of the simple 𐩦 analogous passages show 𐩦 (some copies have 𐩦), a word signifying 'grace, aid, assistance.'

3rd. *After, according to*, e.g. 𐩦 𐩬 (Hal. 149, 15-16), 'according to the order of Halfan.'

4th. *Against*: 𐩦 𐩬 (Os. XVII. 12), 'every foe who shall commit an act of hostility against them,' analogous to the later Hebrew locution 𐤂𐤁𐤀 𐤂𐤁𐤀 𐤂𐤁𐤀, 'he set the dog against him.'

As a conjunction 𐩦 is joined either to the Infinitive or to the Imperfect of a verb; in the first case it appears to mean *when*, e.g. 𐩦 𐩬 (𐩬), 'when he elevated the elevation to A'ttar,' or, 'making an offering to A'ttar.' The 𐩦 joined to the Imperfect serves to form a kind of subjunctive; there is only one example of it known 𐩦 (Hal. 259, 7), 'that he be fined.'

The 𐩦 serving as a relative pronoun when joined to verbs (see *Pronouns*) acts as a preposition before nouns and is translated by *of*, e.g. 𐩦 (Os. I. 3-4, &c.), 'Almaqah of Haron,' 𐩦 𐩬 (Hal. 478, 9), 'all the deities of the sea,' 𐩦 𐩬 (Fr. XX. 1), 'king of Saba and of Raidan.' The use of 𐩦 as a conjunction, meaning *so that*, is still more re-

markable: 𐩦 𐩬 𐩬 (Os. X. 7), 'so that their house (village) was destroyed, and their property conquered.'

With reference to the particle 𐩦 the new texts offer interesting information, though they are somewhat obscure on account of their fragmentary state.

1st. There is no instance of the 𐩦 serving as a particle of comparison before proper or appellative nouns; in all the passages where a similar case occurs, the idea of comparison does not suit the text. Comparison appears to have been indicated in Sabæan by 𐩦, as in Ethiopic; this, however, is not confirmed by the texts.

2nd. Joined to a verb the particle 𐩦 renders the idea of *when, after*. The inscription of Naqab el-Hajar presents the necessary examples: 𐩦 𐩬 (I. 7), 'when he returned near his walls (house);' 𐩦 𐩬 (ib. I. 9), 'after they had conquered the king of Himyar.'

3rd. The 𐩦 designates likewise the motive of an action, and answers to the Hebrew 𐤂, 'for, because;' this meaning appears to be inherent in 𐩦, which is the first in the following difficult expression: 𐩦 𐩬 𐩬 𐩬 (N. H. I. 8), which Halévy proposes to translate as—'For those of the country of Habashat (Abyssinians) had taken hold of him at their last invasion,' or, literally, 'For they had taken hold of him, when they made invasion, those of the earth of Habashat.'

4th. In conformity with the Hebrew 𐤂, the Sabæan 𐩦 is used to designate the purpose of an action, and has the meaning of *in order that*. The following example, as has been observed by Osiander, is very decisive:—𐩦 𐩬 (Os. XVI. 5), 'In order that he may cause men and the inhabitants of their house to prosper.'

5th. But the last and most surprising use of the particle 𐩦 in Sabæan is that it indicates the accusative and even the dative. The examples are too abundant to allow of doubts about the accuracy of Halévy's copies. The following are the clearest passages:—𐩦 𐩬 (Hal. 535, 1), 'They have dedicated to A'ttar of Qabadm,' in lieu of the usual formula: 𐩦 𐩬 (𐩬). Likewise 𐩦 𐩬 (Hal. 221, 2), and 𐩦 𐩬 (Hal. 192, 2), in contrast with the usual locution 𐩦 𐩬 (Hal. 426, 2). The dative is indicated in phrases such as 𐩦 𐩬 (Hal. 534, 2), 'He has renovated to the

honour of A'ttar,' and כסא נאכרא (485, 1), 'he has renovated to the honour of Nakrah.' Examples could easily be multiplied to show this peculiarity, but the preceding ones are all taken from the Minæan dialect.

The use of the particle ל is less varied, but more frequent than the others. It occurs—

1st. As sign of the dative: ל בני יאחאפר (Os. v. 4), 'to the Beni Yahafra'; ל (Fr. LVI.), 'to him'; ל (Os. xi. 8), 'to his vassals (*lit.* men)'; ל (Fr. LIV.), 'to the honour of Almaqqahu.'

2nd. To indicate the purpose, the motive: ל בית סילחין (Fr. LIV.), 'for the welfare of the house of Silhin'; ל (Os. xviii. 7), 'on account of, in consideration of this tablet.'

As in the majority of Semitic languages, the ל is joined to the verb and makes a precativè expressing a wish: e.g. יאמר (Os. ix. 5), 'may he bless them,' strictly 'in order to bless them'; יאמר (β. vi. 6-8), 'may Almaqqahu continue to gratify Anmaru.'

When the ל of tendency precedes the completed verb the latter takes the י of prolongation: יאמר (Os. xxvii. 9), יאמר (ib. xi. 6), יאמר (H. 147, 6); in the plural: יאמר (Os. xxxv. 4). Sometimes, however, also the simple Imperfect occurs: יאמר (Hal. 259, 1), יאמר (ib. l. 3), יאמר (Os. iv. 11-12), יאמר (ib. l. 10-11). In all these examples the precativè sense is less strong, and we perhaps even have here a simple affirmation corresponding to the Arabic *يُ*. Unfortunately the passages from which these examples are taken do not happen to be clear enough to allow of discovering the precise shade of meaning in this particle.

The particle מ, abridged from מ = מ, occurs in several passages: מ...מ (Fr. XLVI.) 'Yta'mir...of the (cultivated) plain of Saba,' מ (Hal. 681, 5), 'it (the illness) retired from her, abandoned her'; מ (Hal. 412, 3) and with transition to מ: מ (Os. xiii. 11) 'and above that'; likewise in the preposition מ, equivalent to the Hebrew מ.

There is yet an interesting peculiarity to be noticed concerning the מ particles. These particles seem, according to the analogy of the relative מ, to possess the faculty of combining with י without changing their signification. Thus it may be seen that מ (Hal. 221, 2) supersedes the usual formula מ (Hal. 226, 2,

&c.); מ (Fr. xi. 3), opposite to מ (Os. viii. 4), מ (Crutt. Saa. i. 17), 'in summer and in winter'; מ (Fr. LIII. 2), which appears to mean 'in the sanctuary.' The last two examples, however, may be explained differently; in this מ the preposition מ, 'between,' with the *scriptio defectiva* may be concealed. At all events the obscurity of the passages quoted allows of no positive assertion. The passages wherein the compound מ appears to supersede the simple מ are still more obscure; a few of them are here submitted to the attention of Semitists: מ (Fr. xi. 3); מ (ib. l. 4); מ (Os. xviii. 1); it would naturally be more simple if this מ were to be the prefix of the first person plural.

Among the isolated prepositions the following occur in the inscriptions:—

1st. מ upon, to; this is identical with the Arabic *على*, and occurs in the following: מ (Hal. 49, 12), 'who carried help to (= *على*) Halikamir.' Also מ (Hal. 152, 13, 14), 'upon all men.'

2nd. מ from, of: e.g. מ (H. 149, 10), 'of any malediction whatever'; מ (ib. 152, 8), מ (ib. 152, 8), 'from this sanctuary (?)'. The form מ is more frequent: מ (Os. xxvi. 9), 'he has preserved him from blows'; מ (Os. xvii. 8-10), 'that he may conceal them from sickness, from malediction, and from witchcraft.'

3rd. מ until, towards: e.g. מ (Fr. LVI. 2), 'and they came till Maryaba'; מ (Hal. 535, 1), 'from the foundations till the roof (?)'. This preposition is also spelt מ, e.g. מ (Hal. 682, 5, 6), 'and because she has gone out towards impure places.' This is Halévy's rendering of the phrase translated as follows in the *Z. d. D. M. G.*: 'and because she kept herself pure in impure places' (und weil sie sich rein hielt in unreinen Orten). In Os. xi. 7, 8 the word מ seems to mean 'in that which concerns.' In the dialect of Hadramaut the locution מ appears to correspond to מ (N. H. l. 2). The inscription of Obne shows also מ (l. 5).

4th. Between, among, amidst: e.g. מ (H. 535, 1), 'between their (two?) towers'; מ (Os. xiv. 4), 'amidst his sheep.'

5th. מ appears to mean in consideration, in exchange: מ (Os. i. 7) 'in consideration of their gift.'

The following are the compound prepositions, as far as Halévy has hitherto been enabled to establish them:—

1st. מִן = Heb. מִן from, by: e.g. מִן אֶלְמַקְקַח (Os. iv. 6-7), 'by Almaqqahu of Harran,' and with the suffix מִן אֶלְמַקְקַח (Os. xii. 5, 6), 'in the asking which he will ask of him.'

2nd. בְּ = Heb. בְּ for, relating to, concerning: e.g. בְּ יָמַי (Os. xiii. 4, 5), 'for, on account of, the misfortunes (lit. happenings) which happened in the family of the Beni Quraym.'

3rd. קָרִיב means probably *near to*, e.g. $\text{קָרִיב מִן מָרְיָבָא}$ (Os. xxxv. 3, 4), 'near to the town of Maryaba;' $\text{קָרִיב מִן מַנְחַתָּא}$ (Os. viii. 10), 'near Manhatm.'

4th. תַּחַת = Arabic تحت , Heb. תַּחַת , under, beneath; of this only one example is known to Halévy: תַּחַת מַלְכֵיהֶם (Hal. 62, 10), 'under their masters.'

5th. כִּי , according to, in conformity (?), occurs in the passage $\text{כִּי אֵלֶּה הָיָה$ (Hal. 49, 15), the sense of which is obscure.

Adverbs are rare in the texts: some are here appended:—

עַתָּה occurs in the locution $\text{עַתָּה מִן$ (Os. xiii. 11), *yet more, moreover* (?).

לַלַּיְלָה in the night: $\text{לַלַּיְלָה הָיָה$ (Hal. 682, 7, 8), 'and for what she has sinned in the night.'

בְּיָדָא = Ar. بِيدٍ , without, e.g. $\text{בְּיָדָא מִן$ (Hal. 682, 6-7), 'places without purity (impure places).' It takes also the prefix בְּ , e.g. בְּיָדָא (Os. xvii. 12).

לֹא = לֹא expresses negation: $\text{לֹא יָדְעָהּ$ (Hal. 682, 8, 9), 'that which she knows not.'

The conjunctions of the Sabæan language form a rich and varied category, displaying affinities with the northern Semitic idioms, especially the Aramæan group:—

1. This particle is just as much conjunctive as disjunctive: וְ (Hal. 144, 3-4), 'Al and A'ttar;' וְ (Hal. 257, 1), 'constructed and renovated;' וְ (Os. i. 6, 7), 'but he (Almaqqahu) has destroyed their author.' The וְ is also placed in the beginning of a sentence, e.g. $\text{וְ הָיָה$ (Hal. 259, 1), 'will be judged (punished) he who will commit havoc,' or 'verily he will be judged who,' &c.

וְ marks the adjunction *and, also* (= וְ also): וְ הָיָה (Os. xvi. 5, 6), 'that he may cause to prosper the men and (also) the inhabitants (strangers) of their house;' וְ הָיָה

(Os. xiii. 6-7), 'and Almaqqahu has also gratified Shammar according to his demand.' This is, no doubt, analogous to the Arabic conjunction وَ .

וְ or, occurs in the unintelligible phrase וְ הָיָה (Hal. 152, 2). It occurs often combined with וְ , thus, e.g. וְ הָיָה (Os. xxxv. 6), 'great or small ones;' וְ הָיָה (Os. iv. 14, 15), 'the Beni-Marṭad or those who obey (them).'

וְ has almost the same meaning with וְ , or, be it. Of this only one example is known to Halévy: וְ הָיָה (Hal. 259, 2, 3), 'or he who will derange them.'

וְ when (= וְ , וְ): וְ הָיָה (Hal. 149, 4-5), 'when they made the journey (?) of Yṭal.'

וְ while, during = וְ , e.g. וְ הָיָה (Hal. 149, 14, 15), 'during (the month called) Dhamahdadm-Qadimat (of the first harvest).'

וְ or וְ on the day when, when: וְ הָיָה (Hal. 154, 4, 6), 'on the day when Ydhammālik placed him at the head of the army of Awsan.' In many inscriptions the word וְ is several times repeated at the beginning of phrases exhibiting various constructions which certainly required much time to be finished; hence it may be concluded that the word in question has also the sense of *then, afterwards, subsequently*. (Comp. e.g. Hal. 188, 520, &c.)

וְ on account of, because, conformably to. This conjunction is derived from the verb וְ , to turn round; its use is extremely varied and not very intelligible, but the following will partly elucidate it:—

1. וְ alone appears to have the meaning of *in conformity with*: וְ הָיָה (Os. iv. 16, 17), 'that he (the god) may accordingly be favourable in conformity with the indication given to Sa'dilah (lit. by which was indicated Sa'dilah).'

2. וְ or וְ because: וְ הָיָה (Os. i. 4-5), 'because he has heard them in their request;' וְ הָיָה (Os. vii. 2, 3), 'because he has heard him in his request.'

3. וְ the same: וְ הָיָה (Os. xvii. 3, 4), 'because he has heard him in his request.' This conjunction appears also to mean *in conformity to* in the passage וְ הָיָה (Hal. 147, 8, 9), 'in conformity to what has preceded this decision (?).'

4. *wa* This form occurs in the mutilated passage *wa wa* (*Hal.* 349, 5), which is perhaps to be translated 'according to the writing.' The meaning of *wa* (*Hal.* 520, 22) is still more obscure.

The causal conjunctions here appended have their best analogies in the northern sister languages:—

1. *wa* firstly means *on that account*, as *wa* in Hebrew: *wa wa wa wa* (*Os.* 1. 5, 6), 'on that account that Almaqqahu may favour them,' then it takes the meaning of *because* and *in order that*, accordingly as the verb which follows it is in the Perfect or in the Imperfect. The following is a very instructive example:—

wa wa wa wa wa wa

wa wa wa wa wa wa wa wa

'Because he favoured him in his request, and in order that he may continue to favour him in the request which he will have need to make.'

Instead of *wa* often *wa* occurs, especially in the phrase *wa wa wa wa* (*Os.* VII. 11, VIII. 12, &c.), 'and in order that good may happen continually (*lit.* and in order that good should be, and that good be).'

2. *pa*. The original sense of this particle

appears to be *according, in conformity*: thus *wa wa wa wa pa wa wa wa* (*Os.* XIII. 3, 4), '(he has heard him) in his request, in conformity to what he had asked from him.' As a conjunction the word *pa* scarcely differs from *wa*, and the inscriptions of Amrān furnish numerous examples of this Sabeen particle.

3. *wa* opposite to this, in regard to this = Arabic *قبل* before.

The inscriptions present no example of any interjections.

List of the Particles.

Prepositions.

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ARCHÆOLOGICAL NOTES.

BY M. J. WALHOUSE, LATE M.C.S.

(Continued from p. 15.)

II.—Folklore.—Snake-stones.

It is remarkable how ancient and widely-spread the notion appears to be of snakes bearing in their heads stones of beautiful or magical properties, the obtaining of which is a feat of the utmost difficulty and danger. The idea is doubtless of Eastern origin, and is generally connected with the belief in the guardianship of concealed treasure, and sleeplessness, and intensity of sight, that in popular imagination have always characterized the dragon—*drakōn*—the beholder, the creature that sees—a belief springing from the fascinating influence always ascribed, and apparently with truth, to the eyes of serpents. The snake of Persian tradition has a small stone, called *Mohrak*, in its head, by which it sees concealed treasure. In the Life of Apollonius Tyaneus there are some marvellous stories of huge Indian serpents, which are divided into those haunting marshes, plains,

and mountains respectively; and the way in which the Indians destroy them is told as follows: "They spread a silken robe inwoven with golden letters before the entrance of the serpent's cave, and those letters, being magical, bring on sleep, so that the eyes of the serpent, although exceedingly hard (they are said to sound like brass when the creature moves—another instance of the idea of sleeplessness), are overcome, and then with powerful incantations they so allure the serpent as to be able to cast over it the magical robe, which induces sound sleep. Then, rushing on it, the Indians cut off its head with an axe, and take out certain small stones found therein. For the heads of the mountain-serpents are said to contain small stones very beautiful, and endowed with a peculiar lustre and wonderful virtues. Such a stone was in the ring that Gyges is said to have possessed." This account is most probably a wildly exag-

gerated version of the Indian snake-charming, and one of the earliest notices of it. The ring of Gyges, it will be remembered, conferred invisibility; beliefs respecting snakes usually have especial reference to the eyes, and at the present day, on the western coast at least, sore eyes are ascribed to the anger of serpents, and a snake is the worst omen a Bráhmaṇ can behold. I have not been able to trace with certainty whether the notion of snakes bearing precious stones prevails in Southern India at the present day, but Bāba Rāj Chandra Sandel of Banāras tells us that in Bengal it is a popular belief that the cobra bears a diamond, "learned men imagining that as that poisonous reptile lives a long life, the effect of time matures its carbon to a diamond. Some people say it sometimes emits light, which has perhaps led them to believe this." As in some degree connected with this, I am tempted to add a strange bit of folklore from the Rev. G. Richter's *Manual of Coorg*, where (at p. 166) we are told that, according to Coorg belief, the cobra lives a thousand years. After passing the meridian of its long life, its body begins to shrink and brighten till it shines like silver, and measures three feet or less at the age of six or seven hundred years. Still later it shines like gold, and is only one foot in length. At last it shrinks to the size of a finger. Then some day it flies up high in the air, dies, and sinks upon the ground, where it disappears. The spot is called Nāka, and is marked by a little stone enclosure. Should any one unawares set foot upon it, he will be attacked by incurable skin disease, and rot away by degrees. In Kanara if any one points at the sculptured serpent-stones so often set up under trees, it is believed the hand will rot. Returning to the subject of the talismanic stones borne in the head, though I have not been able to hear that the peninsular serpents carry diamonds or bright gems, the cobras are everywhere believed to bear on their heads the famous snake-stones which will adhere to any venomous bite and extract the poison. When taken from the reptile's head he is no longer venomous. Charmers will often pretend to extract this stone from the head of a snake they have caught, but of course it is all a sleight of hand. These stones, as is well known, are dark-coloured and shining, the size and almost

the shape of a horse-bean, or sometimes pale and semi-transparent, made apparently of sandarach or false amber. Though adhering for a time to bites, they have no curative properties, as has been largely proved by experiments.

In the New World there are some remarkable parallels to the Indian legend of Apollonius, which might perhaps be pressed into the service of those who contend that the primitive American population were Turanians, who, starting from Central Asia or from India, reached even America at some unknown epoch, and being the earliest serpent-worshipping race, and first discoverers of gems and metals, originated the infinite variety of stories and superstitions that always in some way connect serpents with precious metals and precious stones. The American Indian tribes reverence the rattlesnake, and believe that somewhere in the mountains there is a secret valley inhabited by the chiefs of the rattlesnake tribe, which grow to the size of large trees, and bear on their foreheads brilliant gems that shine with dazzling splendour. They are 'called the kind old kings,' 'the bright old inhabitants,'—appellations evidently placatory, in the same sense as the cobra is always spoken of throughout Southern India as "the good snake." They know all things, and may be consulted if properly approached and besought.* At the present day an animal called the Carabuncle is popularly believed to exist in Peru; it appears only at night, and when pursued, a valve or trapdoor opens in its forehead, and an extraordinarily brilliant object, believed by the natives to be a precious stone, becomes visible, dispelling the darkness and dazzling the pursuers. This account is averred to be so far attested as to warrant a belief in the existence of an animal possessing some remarkable quality which serves as a pretext for the fable. In Cyprus and the adjacent islands and coasts, false precious stones are fabricated by Jews and said to have been taken out of the head of the *Koúpi*; they are worn as amulets to protect the wearers from the bite of venomous animals. So wide-spread and persistent is this ancient belief, which seems to have originated in India. It appears in England respecting the toad, which

'Ugly and venomous,
Wears yet a precious jewel in its head.'

* Adair's *History of the American Indians* may be further consulted on this subject—p. 297.

III.—Folklore.—*Corpse-Candles and Will-o'-the-Wisps.*

Some thirty miles north of the favourite and fashionable station of Bangalore rises the great hill-fort of Nandidurg. Its summit being 1500 feet above the elevated Maisur plateau, and commanding varied and far-stretching prospects, and the many buildings comprised in the fort affording ample accommodation, it is often resorted to by health and holiday seekers. From its top a remarkable exhibition is sometimes seen, known to many as "the Nandidurg lights." Not having ever witnessed them myself, I will borrow an account that appeared in a Madras newspaper of last year. The correspondent writes that being on a visit to the fort, and looking at night from his windows, which commanded a view over all the country around, he was amazed and frightened at seeing "the whole expanse for miles and miles one blaze of lights, the appearance being as of a vast city lighted by gas,—hundred of thousands of lights extending for miles and miles, dancing and glittering in all directions, a weird, horrible, yet beautiful sight." On hurriedly asking a peon what was the meaning of it, he was told "it was the bodies of all those who were killed in battle at Nandi; they all come up at this time with lights in their hands." The opinion of the correspondent's host was that it was the people on the plains with lights collecting white ants after rain; and that though Sheikh Dād declared the lights were corpse-candles, and every candle borne by a body killed in action, yet he believed it was the white ants. This strange exhibition is occasionally seen from the fort, and it is characteristic of Englishmen that, like the correspondent's host, they so often rest satisfied with explanations of unusual phenomena so obviously inadequate as that advanced. A German savant travelling there would soon unravel the mystery; but, though large English communities have long lived in the neighbourhood, no explanation seems to have been offered. It is not unlikely that some luminous insects may be the cause of this wonderful display, which is commonly seen after heavy rains, when some species of insects appear in vast myriads, and amongst them a species of mole-cricket, which I mention because in England the *iguia fatans* has been, with some apparent probability, ascribed to the English mole-cricket (*Gryllotalpa*

valgaris). But the more immediate concern of this note is with the peon's idea that the lights seen by the newspaper correspondent were borne by the bodies of the slain in battle, and its analogy with the Welsh belief in corpse-candles. In Wales the latter are called *Camegll goif*, and the popular belief is that a short time before the death of a person a light is seen issuing from the sick-bed, or sometimes from his nostrils, and taking its course to the churchyard along the very track the funeral is afterwards to pursue. It is dangerous to stand in its way. Some who have been so foolhardy have been strack down, and been long in recovering, but none are hurt who do not stand in the way. Some who have been bold enough to lie down by the wayside when the corpse-candle passed, and look earnestly, have seen the resemblance of a skull carrying the candle, or sometimes a dark shadow, in shape of the person that is to die, carrying the candle between its forefingers, holding the light before its face. In some parts of India when a man has been killed by a tiger, his ghost is believed to sit on the tiger's head holding a light, by which it guides the beast to its prey. The cunning of old man-eaters, and the difficulty in killing them, are ascribed to this ghostly guidance. In a paper read before the Bengal Asiatic Society, Mr. W. Theobald relates that in Barmah it is believed that there is a class of wizards whose heads become dissociated from their bodies during the night, and wander about the jungle feeding on carrion, the bodies remaining at home; and the *iguia fatans* is supposed to proceed from the mouth of one of the wandering heads. If a head be seized whilst so wandering, it screams to be released, and if detained more than twelve hours both head and body perish. This in one or two points rather resembles the Welsh belief.

Mr. Theobald farther says that the *iguia fatans* is very common in the flat alluvial country near the Rajmahal Hills, and is called *Bhuta*, from *Bhuta*, a goblin; the prevailing belief is that it is borne by a ghost. The Rev. Mr. Caldwell, in his interesting account of the Tinneveli Shānārs and their devil-worship, has a sentence echoing the folklore of many nations:—"In the dark of the evening, devils have been observed in a burial or burning ground assuming various shapes one after another, as often as the eye of the observer is turned away, and have

often been known to ride across the country on invisible horses, or glide over marshy lands in the shape of a wandering flickering light." In Tamil the Will-o'-the-Wisp is called *péij-nerappu* = devil-fire. I once saw one on wet jungly ground at the foot of hills, and was told what it was. It moved along in a manner much resembling the flight of an insect. In Mann, XII. 71, it is said that a Brâhman who omits his duty is changed into a demon called *Ulkamukha*, or with a mouth like a fire-brand, who devours what has been vomited. There appears, however, to be nothing in Eastern belief analogous to that which associated the Will-o'-the-Wisp with the tricky goblin, 'that shrewd and knavish sprite called Robin Good-fellow,' who shows his lantern to

"Mistled night wanderers, laughing at their harm."

That pretty and practical fancy appears to have prevailed only in England. Only there did the mischief-loving Puck with his wispy fire delight to lure the belated wanderer into pools and bogs,

"And, leading us, makes us to stray
Long winter nights out of the way;
And when we stick in mire and clay
He doth with laughter leave us."

But these mysterious night-fires have always been associated with tombs and the dead. In Scandinavian legends the sepulchres of the heroes emit a kind of lambent flame, which was always visible at night, and served to guard the ashes of the dead; it was called *Houga Eldr*, or the sepulchral fire. It may be a survival of this belief that originated the custom of a '*chappelle ardente*' at the lying-in-state after death of royal and very distinguished personages, when the darkened chamber is illuminated by a multitude of tapers and flambeaux. Throughout the East the Musalmâns place lights in little recesses made in their tombs, a custom said to be also followed by some of the wild mountain tribes. Such beliefs and usages would tend to connect strange fires seen by night with demons, ghosts, and the dead.

ACCOUNT OF KALHÂT, IN S. E. ARABIA.

BY MAJOR S. B. MILES, POLITICAL AGENT, MASKÂT.

About eighty miles to the south-east of Maskât is the ancient city of Kalhât, which, though long since fallen to ruins and deserted, was formerly the most important seaport town of Omân, and the principal emporium of her commerce. According to the traditions of the Arabs, Kalhât was partially destroyed by earthquake about four centuries ago, and from this time probably commenced its rapid decadence, while other causes, such as the filling up of the haven or creek, and the rise of Maskât in the hands of the Portuguese, completed its extinction as a commercial entrepôt.

Kalhât can lay claim to high antiquity, and is perhaps one of the most ancient seaports of Arabia. In the *Periplus of the Erythrean Sea* it is called Kalaios, and appears as a place of considerable importance, as it gave its name to the group of islands now known as the Deymaniyah group, about one hundred miles further up the Gulf of Omân. Pliny calls it Akila, but with regard to the identification of this name some confusion exists among commentators and geographers. Strabo confounded Akila with Okelis, a town at the Straits of Babelmandeb, and in this he has been follow-

ed by some. Pliny, however, whose knowledge of the eastern side of Arabia was superior to that of Strabo and Ptolemy, mentions Okelis separately and seems to place Akila on the east side; and both Hardouin and Forster, following this arrangement, have located it on the Omân coast, though Forster is, I think, mistaken when he identifies it with El Ceti (properly El Yeti), a spot ten miles south-east of Maskât. I have no doubt myself about Pliny's Akila being identical with Kalhât, the name being simply incorporated with the article *al*. There is no other point on the coast nearly so probable, and, besides the similarity of name, it is confirmed by Pliny's account of the place, which agrees well with our knowledge of Kalhât. He says:—

"We then come to the Sabæi, a nation of Skenitœi, with numerous islands, and the city of Akila, which is their mart, and from which persons embark for India." Now it is certain that Kalhât was for centuries the great rendezvous for trading vessels between India and the Persian Gulf; and as regards the people, it is to be noted, though perhaps it may be merely a coincidence, that the few inhabitants of Kalhât

are to this day the Beni Shaabân, — a small but distinct clan, and probably the remnant of some great tribe. Omân, however, having been from early times a province of Yemen, the people would, like the Yemenites, be called Sabæans from their religion, which, indeed, they retained until the introduction of Islam. In earlier times, before the opening of the navigation of the Red Sea route in the time of the Pharaohs of the nineteenth dynasty and in the infancy of maritime commerce, Kalhât was not improbably the seat of a Phœnician factory or trading station, as Omân was one of the principal routes by which the productions of the East were obtained by those enterprising merchants who, established all along the South Arabian and Omân coasts and in the Persian Gulf, had an almost entire monopoly of the Indian trade; and Kalhât, being the nearest port to India in Arabia, would be peculiarly well suited for their purpose.

From the time of Pliny to that of Marco Polo, a period of nearly thirteen centuries, we have, I believe, no mention of Kalhât by any European author, and we are dependent on Arab and Persian authorities for what we can gather regarding it. One of the first of these is Ibn Kelbî, who died in A.H. 206 [A.D. 821-22], and who, as quoted in an historical work discovered by Colonel E. C. Ross and translated by him in his *Annals of Oman*,* relates, in connection with the emigration of the Yemen tribes in consequence of the bursting of the great dam of Mareb, that the Azdites, under the leadership of Mâlik bin Fahm el Azdî, having arrived in Omân, settled at Kalhât, whence they succeeded in expelling the Persians from the country and establishing themselves therein. Marco Polo devotes a chapter to the city and gulf of Kalhât, in which he styles it a great and noble city, subject to the Mâlik of Hormuz. He says that "the haven is very large and good, frequented by numerous ships with goods from India, and that from this city the spices and other merchandize are distributed among the cities and towns of the interior." Ibn Batuta visited this port in A.D. 1328, about thirty years or so subsequent to Messer Marco, and thus describes the place:— "The city of Kalhât stands on the shore; it has fine bazaars and one of the most beautiful

mosques that you could see anywhere, the walls of which are covered with enamelled tiles of Kashan. The city is inhabited by merchants, who draw their support from Indian import trade. Although they are Arabs, they don't speak Arabic correctly. After every phrase they have a habit of adding the particle *so*. Thus they will say 'You are eating, no!' 'You are walking, no!' 'You are doing this or that, no!' Most of them are schismatics, but they cannot openly practise their tenets, for they are under the rule of Sultân Kutbuddin Tehemten Mâlik of Hormuz, who is orthodox."

The notices of Kalhât, however, by native authors are in general very meagre, and add little to our knowledge of it. The fullest account of the place I have met with is in the itinerary of Ibn El Mojawir, who wrote in A.H. 625 (A.D. 1228), and which I here translate:— "The first who established themselves on the shore at Kalhât were some poor fishermen, who earned their bread through the bounty of God, and as their stay increased they found the locality suited them, and people collected there and multiplied. Now there was a Sheikh from among the Sheikhs of the Arabs who was at the head of this community of fishermen, and his name was Mâlik bin Fahm, and as he stood on the shore he became possessed with the desire of augmenting the place and the number of inhabitants. When, therefore, ships were observed sailing past, he used to tell his people 'kalhât,' meaning, call to the people to put in here, and from this the place was called Kalhât. It was related to me by Ahmad bin 'Alî bin Abdulla el Wasiti that it was called in ancient times Hâtkâl. I asked why it was so called, and he said that when the tribe (meaning probably the Ibadhi schismatics) fled from the battle of Nahrwan, they kept calling to their slaves 'kât,' that is, bring (the provisions). Now the provisions had been brought with them from El Irak, and as the food decreased, one of them said to his slave 'kât' and the slave replied 'kal,' that is, there is but little left. Hence the place was named Hâtkâl, and in process of time the name changed with the revolution of affairs to Kalhât, and the population increased. Subsequently a stone wall was erected, and ships arrived there from every port, bringing merchan-

* Jour. As. Soc. Beng. vol. XLIII. (1874) pt. i. p. 112.

† Yule's Marco Polo, vol. II. p. 382.

dize of every kind, and it became a large and majestic city."

Account of the conquest of Kalhât by the Khwarezmians:—

"When Khwaja Razi ul din Kowam ul Mulk Abubekr el Zozeni became governor of the countries of Karman, Mekran, and Fars on behalf of the Sultân Ala ul din Mohammad bin Nakâ, he possessed himself of Kalhât by the sword, and it is said that Mâlik bin Fahm died in the time of Razi ul din Kowam ul Mulk. Now about that time Razi ul din Kowam ul Mulk found an opportunity to despatch ships to gain possession of Kalhât with all the dependencies of Omân, and he established therein his officers and lieutenants, and they used to collect the revenue and transit dues. He used to send silk there from Karman for sale, and after collecting the revenue of the town, to purchase with it Arab horses and have them brought over in batches of about five hundred. Of these horses the inferior ones were kept for his own stables, but the best were sent to Khwarezm as presents to the Sultân. When Razi ul din died in Karman, he left in Kalhât 64,000 maunds, or, as some say, 80,000 maunds of silk, besides about 500 horses, and with his death the country fell from the grasp of the Khwarezmians, with its horses and silk, in the year A.H. 615. After the death of the Sheik Mâlik bin Fahm bin Mâlik, fortifications of stone and mortar were built at Kalhât in the year 614" [A.D. 1217].

Description of Kalhât.

"Kalhât is a town situated on the shore of the sea and is surrounded by hills, and it is said that its appearance is similar to Aden. Its water is good and is brought from Meida, and there is a stream named Sukherât flowing from the hills between palms and gardens, the water of which is light and digestible, and sweet as the Euphrates. The tribe to which Kalhât belongs is a very small one."

The glory of Kalhât was on the wane, though it was still a considerable town, when visited by D'Albuquerque in A.D. 1507 on his way to Hormuz, and he gives the following description of the place at that time: "Calayet is a town as large as Santarem, not very populous, and with many old buildings almost in ruins, and, according to the information D'Albuquerque received from some Moors, was destroyed by Alexander, who conquered all the country. The

sea strikes it, and the haven is very good, situated at the foot of high hills. On the inland side, somewhat apart from the town, there is a wall, descending from the top of the hill to the sea, erected by the inhabitants to keep out the Moors of the interior from coming to plunder. It belongs to a king called Benjabar, who has good cavalry. There are no trees around the city except a few palm trees near some wells, from which they get drinking-water. From the interior comes an abundance of wheat, barley, millet, and dates. The port is a great rendezvous for ships, which come thither to load horses and dates for India. The king of Ormuz despatched every year a suitable person as Goazil, who governed the country, administered justice, made war, &c. As regards the revenue, there was a eunuch or Cojeator whose duty was to collect taxes and remit them to the king. In all parts of the kingdom of Ormuz were placed these eunuchs, who govern the treasury of the state, and who receive great respect and obedience."

On his return from Hormuz, D'Albuquerque picked a quarrel with the Governor of Kalhât, notwithstanding his having offered submission to Portugal on the former visit, and having attacked the place, destroyed and burnt it. This was the last historical event connected with the town, which never rose again from the ashes. After a few years more it sank into utter insignificance, and its very name now has almost passed into oblivion.

The site of these interesting ruins is on the littoral declivity at the foot of the high and precipitous range of hills called Jebel Kalhât, and at the eastern termination of the mountainous district which lies between Maskât and El Sharkiyeh. The town covered a wide space, and the ground, which is very uneven, is everywhere strewn with the debris of houses and buildings, showing that the population must at one time have been very considerable. The foundations in many places are still observable, but there is not a dwelling of any description left standing, nor are there any signs of architectural grandeur anywhere to be seen. Issuing from the hills and dividing the town is a deep ravine called the Wady Issir, the mouth of which is very broad, and being entered by the sea, doubtless proved an excellent haven for bagalas and native craft in

old days. The only building that has hitherto escaped the general ruin around is a small domed tomb, about fifteen feet square, standing in the highest part of the town. It contained an inscription in Nesk characters in coloured stucco, fragments of which bestrew the ground; and the walls were lined with coloured tiles,—similar, probably, to those ornamenting the great mosque of this city, as described by Ibn Batuta. The dome is constructed in a somewhat primitive fashion, with bracketing work or pendentives. It is built entirely of unshaped stones and coral, as indeed were all the buildings in the city apparently, no hewn or shaped stones being visible anywhere. Near the tomb is a rectangular tank or reservoir, now filled with rubbish, with a broad arch over it, and probably intended as a storage tank for water. The line of fortifications by which the town was enclosed can still be traced without difficulty. On the south side the wall, flanked by three towers or bastions, ran with a slight bend from the sea to the abruptly rising hills, which formed a sufficient protection on that side. To the north-west the town was protected by two towers on a small eminence called El Sheikh, commanding that part of the town, and on this hill the governor of the city is said to have had his residence. Under this lies the present village of Kalhât, inhabited by the El Shaa bain, a petty tribe of about two hundred souls, who live by fishing and doing a small trade in dates.

The Wady Issir, which seems the natural pass into the interior from Kalhât, is, however, so blocked up by huge boulders and fragments of limestone washed down from the lofty, precipitous walls above, that it is impassable for laden camels, and their place is here taken by asses; and I imagine, therefore, that the route by which

the bulk of the produce and merchandize was carried to and fro between the town and the interior was round by Sûr, which is easily reached by sea and land, and which lies open to the inland districts of El Sharkiyeh and Jaalân. About two miles up the wady is Sukherât, where there is room for a little cultivation, and where a small but perennial mountain stream, bounding and cascading among the rocks and stones, once fed an aqueduct that supplied the city with pure water, and the traces of which are still visible along the right bank of the wady, though generally destroyed by the hand of time and the action of the torrent. The beginning of the aqueduct is marked by a square chunammed cistern, which, with part of the canal leading from it, is still in good preservation. Meida, also alluded to by Ibn El Mojawir, is merely a deep pool in the bed of the ravine about half a mile from the town, and was at best a precarious source of supply. There are said to have been one hundred and one wells within the walls of the city, but none of them now contain water. In former times vessels are traditioned to have ascended the creeks and anchored abreast of the town half a mile from the sea, where they would of course find perfect shelter from every wind; but these creeks, apparently by the scour of the torrent, have now become filled up with detritus and sand from above, and are too shallow for any but the smallest boats to enter them. This fact is alone sufficient to account for the total eclipse of Kalhât as a commercial port, and its place is now to some extent taken by the neighbouring and flourishing town of Sûr, which, with its deep and capacious creek, has become next to Maskât and Muttrah the greatest rendezvous for native shipping on the Omân coast.

SPECIMENS OF THE WEDDING SONGS OF THE MUNDAH-KOLHS, FROM THE GERMAN OF THE REV. TH. JELLINGHAUS.

[Mr. Jellinghaus mentions that his translation is literal, and therefore but poorly represents the harmony of the original. The following is a literal rendering of Mr. Jellinghaus's German, made by a friend and rapidly glanced over by me.—J. M. Mitchell.]

*Speech of the bride, who is leaving her
father's house, to her brother.*

In one mother's womb we were sister and
brother,
Drinking we have drunk a whole cask of milk,

Drinking we have drunk a whole cask of milk;
Thy lot, O brother, is the father's wood-house;
My lot, O brother, is the distant land.
The mother weeps her whole life long,
The father weeps six months,
The brother weeps during the (marriage) talking
and eating,
The sister-in-law weeps a moment,
The fowls, calling out for me, already begin to
smooth their combs again.

2. *Conversation between husband and wife about growing old.*

O thou, in grass-covered hut,
In the wood-house, my mate,
Like the flower thou art dried up,
Like the red flower thou art faded :
Is it from the earth's heat, my mate,
Or from the heaven's glow,
That thou like the flower art dried,
That my mate like the red flower is faded ?

The husband's answer.

It comes not from the earth's heat,
It comes not from the heaven's glow ;—
Time goes on, my mate,
Age is drawing near ;
Time goes on, my mate,
Like a narrow footpath ;
Age draws nigh, companion,
As on a broad highway.
As in a dull, damp upland, O mate,
Have we become dull, O mate ;
As in a confused waste vale, O companion,
Have we become confused ;
You are dull and I am dull, O mate,
We are both alike dull ;
You are confused and I am confused, O mate,
We are both alike confused.

3. *Alternate song at the wedding between bride and bridegroom.*

(Chiefly sung by the person who brings in the bride.)

Bride.—Come in, lad, come in
To the *kuda*-tree's low shade,
To the fruit-tree's deep recess
Go in, lad, go in.

Bridegroom.—I will go in, I will go in,
Though I have not much gold,
For the *kuda*-tree's low shade,
For the fruit-tree's deep recess.

Bride.—Is not the price of the wedding-money there ?

Then, my lad, go not about, loving, piping ;
If thou hast not much money,
Then, my lad, my lad, go not about piping with
your teeth :
Then say not to me "Come here,"
Then say not to me "Go with (me) ;"
My hair-top is loosed,
My upper covering is unbound.
Wilt thou care for me like the falcons,
Thou who sayest to me, "Come to me" ?
Wilt thou provide for me like the great falcons,
Thou who sayest to me "Go with me" ?

Bridegroom.—A village is there, and land is also there, my dearie ;
Wilt thou carry it away rolling it up like a mat ?

A village is there, and land is also there,
Wilt thou carry it away like wood on thy back ?

(The meaning is, Don't be so covetous.)

Thy mother's and father's house was like the
possessor's of the village (*dicku*),—
Like water are they dried up ;
Thy uncles and cousins were like the wise men
(*sadu*),—

They are extinguished like fire.

Thy father and mother are overgrown with
thorns,

Thy relations are covered with stones :

Ah, weeping comes over me—

They are grown over with thorns ;

Sorrow rises up in my soul—

They are covered over with stones.

4. *Satirical song of the bride's relations.*

Our lassie, our lassie (*konea*),
Rub her and adorn her, our lassie.
Your young man is a crow young man, is a
crow young man ;

Our rice, our rice is the white flower-rice,

Our rice, our rice is the white flower-rice ;

Our flesh is like the beautiful cotton-plant,

Our flesh is like the beautiful cotton-plant ;

Eat well, O guests,

Eat well, O guests,

And stuff it in with the bar of the oxen's house !

The tone and form of this song has in Mundari something very cheerful, droll, and harmonious.

5. *Drinking-song on the women who at the marriage provide the rice-brandy.*

Draw out, draw out

The *kila sala* (rice) beer ;

Strain out, strain out

The *tali sala* old beer ;

Give some, O drawer-out,

Into the *masuri* leaf-vessel,

Share out the beer to me.

Well, now, O drawer-out,

Into the *talar* leaf-vessel

Share out the beer to me.

She who draws it out is drunk, O aye,

She who shares it out is drunk, O aye.

6. *Satirical song of the sister to her brother in love.*

My brother had gone on the way to Doisa,*
My brother had gone on the street to Khukkra;
My brother has now stood up,
I have brought out the chair for my brother,
For my brother I have brought out the foot-
stool of pappra-wood.
My brother has no desire for the chair of gandu-
wood,
My brother has no pleasure in the footstool of
pappra-wood;
My brother is in his soul in love with the Bräh-
man maiden,
My brother's life and desire goes out to the
Santhal maiden.

7. *Another satirical song sung by the women on the arrival of the bridegroom.*

Here and there a river, a large one;
Yonder and here a river, a small one,
O how how he can spring over it!
Truly he must have dogs' feet,
And a backbone exactly like a dog's.

8. *Song of the relations of the bridegroom.*

Try, lad, try
Jungle-grass that shakes;
Try lad, try exactly,
Try foot and head;
Is the lower leaf on the tree
Already full of holes and old?
Look up; that is young;
Take it for thyself quickly.

(The meaning is, he should not take the elder sister, because she is already old.)

9. *Another satirical song about the bridegroom's hair.*

Look, pray, at the jungle grass,
Look, pray, at the shaggy grass:
It looks like bears' hair,
Look at the man shaggy as a bear.

10. *Counsel and instruction of the relations of the bridegroom to the bride on the married state.*

Warm work will it be for you, O bride,
Soundly will you sweat, O bride;
This way, that way, must the rice-pounder fly;
If you do it not, who will give you to eat?
If the father-in-law quarrels with you,
If the mother-in-law also calls you names,
Do not, lassie, do not, do not
On that account give up.

11. *Order for the dance.*

Come, lassie, let us go to the dance,
Only the stone remains lying on one spot;
Come, lassie, let us draw to the feast,
We will not live like (rooted) flowers.
When the life is out, the body will be burnt;
When the life is out, we shall be earth.

12. *Harvest-song.—Conversation between wife and husband; the wife speaks.*

We two, my dear fellow (*boie*),
We are bound together like twin trees;
We two, my dear fellow,
Are united like trees in an avenue.
We two, my dear fellow,
Shall forget the village lord,
And together plunge (into the dance);
We two, my dear fellow,
Shall forget the holy people,
And together fall into the line.
Early, when the cock crows,
Shall we care for hunger;
Afterwards, when the peacock invites us,
Shall we think of thirst.

The husband's answer.

You, O my wife, think of hunger;
You, O my partner, care for thirst;
In the morning when the cock crows,
Shall we think of work;
Later, when the peacock invites,
Shall we attend to business (out of the house—
in the market-place, &c.).
For our children and our grandchildren,
For them will we care;
For our children and grandchildren,
For them will we care.

13. *Wail of an orphan.*

The upper *tola* (part of the village), oh! it is
lonely;
The under *tola*, oh! it is desert:
O my mother, who is no more!
The upper *tola*, oh! it is lonely;
The lower *tola*, oh! it is desert;
O my father, who is no more!
Ah! if my mother still lived,
Ah! if my father still lived,
I would place myself on their bosom.
Ah! if my mother still lived,
Ah! if my father still lived,
I would lay myself on their breast.

* The old capital of Chutiā Nāggur.

Motherless! ah! I am deserted:
 O my mother, who is no more!
 Fatherless! oh! I am left alone:
 O my father, who is no more!
 To be motherless is a great sorrow;
 To be fatherless, is it not deep darkness?
 O my mother, who is no more!
 O my father, who is no more!
 To be now a servant, that is most painful;
 To be a hireling is also very sad.
 O my mother, who is no more!
 O my father, who is no more!

This song is also very harmonious in Mandari.

14. Warning about going home quickly.

Run, girl, on the broad way;
 Trip, girl, trip on the long footpath.
 Run, girl, run, your mother's house is on fire;
 Trip, girl, trip, in your father's house a hole
 is burnt.

If my mother's house is burning, then will
 I go;
 If a hole is burnt in the father's house, then
 will I run.

BENGALI FOLKLORE—LEGENDS FROM DINÂJPUR.*

By G. H. DAMANT, B.C.S., RANGPUR.

The Finding of the Dream.

There was once a king who had two queens, named Durâni and Surâni; he was very much distressed because neither of them had borne him a son, so he worshipped God and both conceived, but Surâni bore a son first, and when the ceremony of *śāsti* was performed the name of Chandra was given him. After that Durâni bore her son, and at his *śāsti* ceremony he was called Śiva Dās. Now before Śiva Dās was born, a soothsayer had come, and, after making magical calculations, had declared that the king would become blind if he saw the child who was in the womb of Durâni; so directly the child was born the king put Durâni and her son forth from the women's apartments, and made them live in a house which he had provided in another place, neither could he bear to hear her or her son's name mentioned.

When Śiva Dās reached the age of ten or twelve years, both he and his mother suffered great hardships from want of food, for they lived by begging, and only obtained just enough to eat. Śiva Dās was very much devoted to the worship of Śiva, and never ate or drank without first worshipping him. Śiva was very much pleased with him, and one day disguised himself as a *sanyāsi* and went to his house as a guest. As soon as Śiva Dās saw him, he saluted him and wrapped his cloth round his throat and said with folded hands, "My lord Brāhmaṇ, this is a lucky day for me, since I have seen your honoured foot." He then went to his mother to make some arrangement for his guest's food,

and asked her what they had in the house: she said, "Child, we have nothing at all; what you get by begging in one day is only enough for us two, mother and son, for one meal; it is not sufficient for two meals. Who suffers hardships like us?" Hearing this, Śiva Dās began to cry, and to think what he could give his guest to eat. Durâni, seeing her son crying, went into the house and began to search amongst the pots and pans, till in one corner of the house, in a pot, she found a little broken rice, and thought that if she had seen it before, it would not have been left there,—it must have been overlooked. So she took about half a *ser* to the *sanyāsi* and said, "This is all I have, be kind enough to accept it:" so he took the rice and cooked and ate it, and Śiva Dās and his mother ate what was left.

The *sanyāsi* was pleased with Śiva Dās and said to him, "I will give you a sword which you must always keep with you; it has many good qualities: if you say to it, 'Sword given by Śiva, take me to such a place,' it will instantly fly with you there, and you will be victorious in battle, and as long as it remains with you you will never die." With these words he gave him the sword and went away, and Śiva Dās always kept the sword by him.

In the meantime Surâni's son, Chandra, was about sixteen or seventeen years old, and could read and write very well. One night the king saw a very wonderful dream, and remained awake till next morning thinking about it. At one watch next day he was still in bed medi-

* Continued from Vol. III. p. 343.

tating on it, so his men-servants and maid-servants and the prince came to him with folded hands and invited him to rise, but he paid no attention to any of them, and still continued to think about the dream. Meanwhile the prime minister, diván, and other officers of state were waiting in court, and wondering why the king was so late in coming—they thought he must be angry with some of them: so the prime minister said he would go and call the king. He entered the palace and asked the king why he was so late in rising, and requested him to be good enough to tell him about what he was meditating. The king told him he was meditating on a very wonderful dream which he had seen in the night, and said, "I thought I saw a large two-storied house surrounded on all sides by all kinds of flowers. A very beautiful woman was lying inside it,—her beauty was such that it lighted up the whole house; at every breath she took while she slept, a flame like a flower issued from her nostril, and when she drew in her breath the flower of flame was again withdrawn. I have been thinking of this dream ever since, and it will be well for you if you can show it me, for if you do not I will put you to death." The prime minister replied that, since the king had seen the dream, it must exist somewhere, and he would take the prince and go in search of it, and meanwhile the king must rise and go to court. So the king rose and washed his hands and face and went to court, but the whole day he did nothing but talk about the dream, so that the business of the kingdom was entirely stopped. The king then appointed a day, and the prime minister and Chandra started to find the dream, taking with them abundance of provisions, elephants, horses, silver sticks, flags, weapons, and soldiers. They travelled for six months towards the south, when they came to a terrible jungle which they were unable to penetrate: it was full of Rákshasas, and there was no road in it. They set a great many labourers to work, but the more jungle they cut, the more there seemed to be left.

Meanwhile Duráni's son, Śiva Dās, heard of the dream and asked his mother about it, and she told him all the king had seen, and how the prime minister and Chandra had gone in search of it. Śiva Dās said that although the king could not bear to look on him, still he was his

father, and if Chandra had gone to try and find the dream he would go too. Duráni replied, "My child, you are the only wealth I have in my poverty, if you go away I cannot bear to live alone without you: moreover, how can you support yourself? You cannot go." Śiva Dās paid no attention to his mother's words, but determined that as he was the king's son he would go to him and obtain his consent to search for the dream. So he went to court, but, not having sufficient courage to approach the king, he sent a message through an attendant to say what his request was. When the king heard it he said, "Why has Duráni's son come to me? he may go if he likes: I shall not be sorry if he dies; he is no child of mine." Śiva Dās was satisfied with that, and went to his mother to ask for her consent, and told her that his father had agreed to let him go; she would not at first consent, but at last gave him leave to go. So he took his sword and went into a field, and sat on the sword and said, "Sword given by Śiva, take me to the place where Chandra and the prime minister now are." The sword instantly lifted him up and took him to the place where they were, finishing a six-months' journey in one day. Śiva Dās went to Chandra and saluted him, and asked whether he had succeeded in finding the dream; but he replied that they had come across the jungle, and, not finding a road through it, had been unable to discover anything concerning the dream, and that the jungle was full of Rákshasas, and the more they cut it the more it grew.

Śiva Dās said he would go to the west of the jungle and see if there was any road or not. So he went a little way, but saw nothing but jungle on every side; he then cut a road with his sword till he came to the other side, but the jungle grew up behind him as fast as he cut it. All this time Chandra was in the same place, still clearing jungle. When Śiva Dās came into the open country he could see no village or people, so he travelled on to the west for five days till he came to a village, which he entered, and inquired who was the king of the country and whether there was any bazar. The people told him there was a great king there, and also a bazar: so he went to the bazar and bought a house, in which he lived, and after he had eaten he bought a shield and a necklace of beads and put on the dress of an

upcountry man. He then went to the king's palace, taking his sword and shield, and seeing the jemadâr in the courtyard he told him he was an upcountry man seeking for service, and that he would undertake whatever no one else could do. The jemadâr informed the king, and the latter ordered him to be brought before him. Śiva Dâs came very respectfully, and the king, being pleased with his appearance, ordered him to be appointed to keep guard in the courtyard.

So Śiva Dâs continued to eat and live there. Now the king had for a long time been subject to a disease which came on once or twice a month, and it attacked him just at this time and he became senseless. A great many doctors and physicians had formerly attended him, but none of them could cure the disease; so the prime minister, remembering that the new servant had undertaken to do what no one else could, sent for him to the king's presence and told him about the king's illness. Śiva Dâs inquired the nature of the disease, and the king told him that a sound of weeping was heard to the north, and when it reached his ears he was instantly attacked by the disease and became senseless. Śiva Dâs, on hearing this, waited till midnight, and then, taking his sword and shield, went twenty *kos* along the north road till he reached a high mountain, which he ascended, and on the top found a beautiful girl who was screaming and crying, but she was really a Rākshasa who had assumed the form of a woman, and when her crying reached the king's ears he became ill. Śiva Dâs asked why she was crying, and told her she must leave that place, and when she refused to go away he threatened to cut her in pieces; she grew angry at that, and assumed her own shape and came towards him, and they fought for a long time, but at last he cut off one of her arms, which was fifty cubits in length.

She ran away as soon as her arm was cut off, and the king's disease was stayed. Śiva Dâs thought he had better take the arm with him and show it in the palace, or no one would believe him: so he took it, and seating himself on his sword said, "Sword given by Śiva, take me and the arm of the Rākshasa to the king's palace." He was instantly lifted up and deposited in the king's courtyard. The next morning every one was astonished at the sight of the arm of the Rākshasa, and the king was very much pleased

with Śiva Dâs, and, wishing to know more about him, inquired whose son he was and where he lived. Śiva Dâs gave a true account of himself, and the king gave him his daughter in marriage. Śiva Dâs remained there for a few days after his marriage, and then determined that he would proceed in search of the dream, so he took leave of the king and travelled along the road for a month, and then mounted his sword and flew over the sea to the country or the Rākshasas.

As he was approaching, two Rākshasas were bathing in the sea, and one of them said, "I smell the scent of a wondrous man." At that moment Śiva Dâs descended beside them, and they seized him and began to smell and lick his body. One of them said, "I shall eat man's flesh," the other said, "No, brother; what is the use of eating one man? he will not fill your belly; we will hold him to ransom and take him to the king, who will be pleased with us." So they agreed on this plan, and held him to ransom and took him to the king, and said, "See, we have brought this man from a long distance for you: be pleased to accept him." The Rākshasa king was excessively pleased to obtain Śiva Dâs, but, liking his appearance very much, he refrained from eating him, and said to his prime minister, "I do not wish to eat this son of man; he is very good-looking and must be some king's son, so I will not kill him, but will marry him to my daughter." The minister told the king to do as he pleased, and the matter was settled, and in a few days Śiva Dâs married the Rākshasa's daughter. Some time before the marriage, Śiva Dâs said to the king, "You have promised to marry me to your daughter, but suppose she should kill and eat me?" The king replied, "We are Rākshasas, it is true, but we do not kill our husbands and suffer the torture of widowhood; we could not commit such a sin." Śiva Dâs was reassured at hearing this, and spent some time happily with his Rākshasa wife, and as he was really fond of her he constantly remained with her.

One day he told the king about the dream which his father had seen, and how he had come to search for it, and asked if he knew where it was to be found. The king said he had heard that the dream really existed, but he did not know where it was to be found; he heard of it from an ascetic who lived in the forest three

days' journey to the south, and he could tell where and how it was to be found. Śiva Dās inquired how he could approach the hermit, and the king told him that when the hermit went to the river-side to perform his devotions he must go to his hut and clean it thoroughly and remain in hiding near, and when the hermit returned and saw all his house cleaned he would wonder who had done it, and after considering a little time he would discover who it was and call him by name : he must then go and prostrate himself, and when he was questioned relate the whole story. Śiva took the advice of the Rākshasa, and went to the house of the sage, but found he was not at home, so he cleaned the house and remained concealed near. The sage returned and wondered who it was that had cleaned his house, and after considering a little time he discovered that it was a king's son named Śiva Dās, so he called him by name, and Śiva Dās came and stood before him and saluted him; the sage told him to sit down, and asked him why he had come. Śiva Dās told him all about the dream he had come to seek, and said he had come to him as he heard he could give him some information about it. The sage said, "The dream is true, but very difficult to find; if you will remain here a few days, I will tell you how you can get it." Śiva Dās remained there for some time, living on fruits and roots, and at last told the sage he wished to hear how the dream could be obtained. The sage replied, "There is a pond here, and on the north side of it is a ghāt and a temple of Śiva: on the night of the full-moon five nymphs from heaven, amongst whom is one named Tillottama, will come to bathe there; they will descend from their chariot and take off their clothes and put them on the bank of the tank and go into the water: you must take their clothes and remain concealed. The girl who has the mole on her nose is the one from whose nose the flower will come out." On the night of the full-moon the sage said, "Śiva Dās, to-night you must go to the pond, for the nymphs will descend, and I will give you some holy water which you must take with you, or they will burn you to ashes: and you must go very carefully." Śiva Dās took the holy water and went to the temple of Śiva on the bank of the pond. In the meantime the nymphs came down from heaven and went to bathe in the water. The whole place was lighted up with

their beauty, and Śiva Dās was so enraptured that he forgot to take the holy water, but took the clothes of all five and went and hid again. When the nymphs had finished bathing, they came to the ghāt and found that all their clothes had disappeared, so they wished that the man who had taken them might be reduced to ashes, and as Śiva Dās had not the holy water of the sage with him he immediately became ashes.

When the sage saw it he repeated an incantation and restored him to life, telling him that he would have perished entirely had he not seen his ashes. So Śiva Dās remained with the sage till the next full-moon, when the sage again gave him some holy water and fastened it in his dress, and told him to take the clothes of the nymphs and go and sit in the temple of Śiva; and when they saw that their clothes were gone they would curse him, but no harm would befall him; and when they asked him to give back their clothes he was to refuse, and they would urge him and promise that if he consented he should marry whomsoever he liked among them; and if he married the one who had a mole on her nose and was called Tillottama the dream would be obtained, and lastly he was not to mind her being very ugly, but to marry her all the same. Śiva Dās gained confidence on hearing this, and went to the temple, and the nymphs came down and bathed as before, and he took their clothes away and went into the temple and clung to the idol. When the nymphs had ended bathing, they came up the ghāt and found their clothes gone, so they uttered the curse as before, but as Śiva Dās had the holy water with him no harm happened to him.

The nymphs inquired who he was, and told him to give up their clothes, but he continued to refuse. Now they were naked and could not delay, because they were engaged to dance in Indra's court, so they promised that if he would restore their clothes he should marry the one he liked best among them. On hearing that, he gave back the clothes, and they came and stood in a row before him, telling him to choose the one he preferred, and all the time Tillottama was standing there, looking very ugly. Śiva Dās looked at them, but was so bewildered that he could think of nothing; at last, however, as the sage had bidden him, he married Tillottama, although she looked so ugly, but the other nymphs said, "We are much the most beauti-

ful, and yet you have married her, although she looked so ugly: for shame, prince!"

Tillottama regained her former good looks, and she and Śiva Dās went away and remained a little time together, and when she was starting for her own country she gave him a flute and told him she would come to him whenever he played it.

Śiva Dās took the flute and returned to the house of the sage, and told him how he had found the dream. The sage told him not to delay there any longer, but to go back to his own country; nevertheless he stopped there a little time, till one day he thought that he had never put the dream to the test, and he wished to see it, and also to see whether the flute was true or not. Having determined on this, he played on the flute, and Tillottama instantly appeared before him and said, "You madman, have you no consideration for time? this is the time for me to dance in Indra's court." However she stayed with him a little time and then went away.

Next day Śiva Dās thought that, now he had proved the flute to be true, he would like to see the dream, so one day at midnight he said to his sword, "Sword given by Śiva, take me to the place in heaven where Tillottama is sleeping;" so the sword took him to heaven, and he found Tillottama asleep, and the house was lighted up by her beauty as if by lightning, while the flower of fire kept coming out from her nose and retreating again.

Śiva Dās was excessively delighted at the sight and seized the flower, and she woke up instantly, overcome with joy, and said, "Your death has come, for if you come face to face with any of the gods you will be reduced to ashes and will make me a widow: you must leave this place at once." So Śiva Dās descended to earth and went back to the sage, and after he had taken leave of him went back to the country of the Rākshasas.

His wife and her mother were very glad to see him, and set food before him. The king of the Rākshasas had a young unmarried niece, whom Śiva Dās married, and passed some time in great happiness, but at last thought he ought to return to his own country: so he went to the king and said he had found the dream and did not wish to make any further delay. The king said he had no objection to his going, so Śiva

Dās selected a lucky day for his journey and prepared to start. He and the Rākshasas packed up a great many things in a small compass, and he said he supposed they must travel by *pālī*, but the Rākshasa king said they never went in *pālīs*, but travelled in the air. So saying, he gave his daughter a great many ornaments, and bade her and his son-in-law farewell. They all three travelled onwards in the sky till they reached the city of the king whom Śiva Dās had served and whose daughter he had married. Śiva bought a house in the bazar, and then went alone to the king, and remained in the palace for two days, and was treated with great respect, and then he told the king that he had found the dream and wished to go to his own country. The king replied that he might take his daughter and go; and he adorned her with jewellery and sent her with Śiva Dās, and he and she and the two daughters of the Rākshasas all travelled along the sky together till they reached the place where Chandra, the son of Surāni, and the minister were trying to cut their way through the jungle.

Chandra asked if he had found the dream, and who the three women were, and Śiva Dās said he had found it, and the women were his wives. So Chandra concluded that the dream was in the power of one of them, and he and the minister plotted together to kill Śiva Dās by some stratagem, and take the three women to the king and tell him they had found the dream. Having determined on this, he one day invited Śiva Dās to play at dice on the edge of a well. Now Śiva Dās was a very intelligent man, and he suspected some design, so he said to his wives, "If Chandra should throw me into the well, you must take all your clothes and ornaments and throw them in after me and then go with Chandra, and if he attempts to misuse you, you must say that you have made a vow, and until that vow be accomplished you will not touch a man."

So they went to play at dice, and while they were playing one of them gave Śiva Dās a push and threw him down the well. He had his sword and flute with him, so he merely said, "Sword given by Śiva, protect me," and immediately he spoke, although he had fallen half-way down the well, he rose in the air; but in the meantime his three wives had come and thrown their ornaments and clothes down

the well, so he took them with him. Chandra and the minister then took the three women and went to their own country, and Chandra tried to misuse them on the way, but they spoke as Śiva Dās had told them, and he desisted.

The king was very glad to hear that the son of Surānī had returned with the dream, and ordered dancing and singing; he then invited a great many other kings to witness the disclosure of the dream. Now before Chandra had reached home, Śiva Dās had come out of the well and gone to his own house, where he remained in secret. In the meantime Surānī thinking that Chandra had married the three wives greeted them like a mother, and sent a servant to call Durānī. When the servant told Durānī, she said, "I am only a poor woman, why should I go?" Śiva Dās said, "Mother, it is better that you should go; no man has ever seen ornaments like those I have brought from the land of the Rākhasas, and no man can make them." So he made her wear them, and sent her to the king's palace. She found the bridegroom and the three brides there, but when the latter saw her wearing their own clothes and ornaments they made signs to each other that she was their mother-in-law, and had worn the ornaments as a proof of it, so they kept quite close to her and followed her wherever she went. Surānī wished happiness to the bridegroom and brides, but when she found they would not enter the house she began to abuse Durānī, calling her witch, meddler, burnt forehead, and saying, "You have come into my house and bewitched the three wives; you cannot bear to see the prosperity of others: die, unlucky wretch! This is the reason, too, the king has become blind." Durānī said to the three wives, "I am only a poor old woman, do not come with me, I have nothing to do with you." They replied, "You are our mother-in-law." Durānī said, "No, you must go now into the house of this other mother-in-law; see how she continues to abuse me!" So the girls

left her and went into the house of Surānī. In the meantime the son of Surānī was about to show the dream to the king, and a great many other kings had assembled to witness it. The king said, "Chandra, our court is now crowded, show us the dream." So Chandra went into the house to the three wives and said, "Which of you knows about the dream? show it to me."

The girls said, "What is that? we know nothing of any dream." So Chandra fled away by the back door. The king, seeing he delayed to return, sent to look for him and found he had run away, and after hearing the whole story from the three wives he banished Surānī and her son from the palace, and summoned Śiva Dās and said to him, "What do you know about the dream?" So Śiva Dās related all his adventures from the beginning, and how he had found the dream. Then the king took him to his heart and was excessively pleased with him, and changed the name of Durānī to Surānī, and took her to live in his palace. Śiva Dās asked his father to build him a two-storied house surrounded by beautiful flowers and adorned on the walls inside with carved work. So the king ordered the house to be begun at once and completed within a week, and then he said, "The house is ready, now show me the dream." But Śiva Dās said, "Ask all the other kings as before." When they were all assembled, he chose a lucky moment and went into the house, and sat on a magnificent bed and began to play his flute; Tilottama instantly appeared, and they were both delighted to see each other again: her beauty lighted up the whole place, and after a little time the flower was seen coming out and entering her nose as before. Śiva Dās called all the kings who were assembled to witness it, and when they saw it they all exclaimed, "What a wonderful sight we have seen!" and praised Śiva Dās. When the king saw it, he gave up his kingdom to Śiva Dās, who henceforward lived with his four wives in the greatest happiness.

THE AUTHOR OF THE PĀLALACHHĪ.

BY J. G. BÜHLER, PH. D.

In my first notice of the *Deśikoshā* entitled *Pālistochhī* (*Ind. Ant.* vol. II. p. 395) I had to leave it doubtful who its author was. I pointed out that according to Dharmasāgara's and other

Jaina writers' Gurvāvalī Dhanapāla, a protégé of king Munja and King Bhajja, wrote a *Deśadamanālā* in the year Vikrama 1029 at Ujjain, and that the *Pālistochhī* had been

composed in the same year and in the same place. If I was unwilling to declare myself for the identity of the two works, the reason was that I could not trace in my MS. some passages which Hemachandra, in his commentary on his own *Deśikōśha*, ascribes to Dhanapāla.

I have, however, lately found a second copy of the *Pāṇinīyās*, which is more correct than the first. On looking over the concluding verses in this MS., I find that verse 279 contains a conundrum on the author's name, the solution of which is Dhanavāla, the Prakrit form of Dhanapāla.

The verse runs as follows:—

kaipo andhajaṇa kivā kusalaṭṭi payāṇam
antimā vanna |
nānammi jassa kamaso teṇesā viraiā deśi
|| 279 ||.

"By that poet this Deśi has been composed, in whose name the last syllables of the words 'anDHA, jaṇA kiVā kuSAṬA occur in their proper order, i.e. Dhanavāla.'"

"Andhajaṇa kivā kusalaṭṭi" may be understood to mean "a fool or a clever man." The author probably means to convey the idea that a fool won't find out his name, but that a clever man will.

MISCELLANEA AND CORRESPONDENCE.

HINDUISM AND REVELATION.

In his Sixth Anniversary Address illustrating the existence in Hinduism of faint traces of the great truths of Revelation, the Rev. K. M. Bannerjee thus writes of "the inscrutable Will of the Almighty that without shedding of blood there is no remission of sin. This too appears embedded in ancient Aryan traditions—in the *ṛiti* or 'hearings' of our ancestors." That the great religious duty according to the precepts of ancient Brāhmanism consisted in the offering of sacrifices, is a notorious fact on which it is not necessary to say much. Next to the Jews, this religious duty was most assiduously observed by the Brāhmanas. Names of priests, words for fire, for those on whose behalf the sacrifices were performed, for the materials with which they were performed, abound in language etymologically derived from words implying sacrifice. No literature contains so many vocables relating to sacrificial ceremonies as Sanskrit. Kātyāyana says that heaven and all other happiness are the results of sacrificial ceremonies. And it was a stereotyped idea with the founders of Hinduism that animals were created for sacrifices. Nor were these in olden days considered mere offerings of meat to certain carnivorous deities, followed by the sacrificers themselves feasting on the same, as the practice of the present day represents the idea. The vicarious nature of the sacrifices appears to have been substantially comprehended by the promoters of the institution in India. The sacrificer was believed to redeem himself by means of the sacrifice. The animal sacrificed was itself called *the sacrifice*, because it was the ransom for the soul.

Not only was the sacrifice quite free from the idea of offering meat for the carnal gratification of any special deity, but the sacrificial ceremony,

most assiduously performed according to an elaborate ritual, had no necessary reference whatever to any divine presence, certainly not the Supreme Divinity, for the Śāṅkhyas and Mīmāṃsāks, who denied such a Divinity, were even the more assiduous in the performance of these 'duties' because of their atheism. The overt ceremony was performed without any covert notion of a presiding deity, although theoretically some elemental or creature divinity was somehow connected with it. The ceremony was indeed considered a mysterious *opus operatum*—which, if only gone through according to rule, conferred the blessing expected. The ritual was performed—the theology was forgotten. And therefore the efficacy of the sacrifice was called a *vidyā*—or a mysterious power. "We abolish, O Death! by the *vidyā* or mysterious efficacy of sacrifice, all those bonds of thine which are for the destruction of mortals:" *Taitt. Aranyaka*.

Mr. Bannerjee further finds among his Aryan ancestors recollections, however distorted, of various events in sacred history from the very creation of the world down to the dispersion of mankind—as (1) the recollection of the Spirit brooding on the surface of the waters in the story of the *egg* in the midst of chaos in which Brahma was produced;—(2) of the sentence pronounced on the great dragon the serpent called Satan, in the story of Nāhusha similarly cursed for his pride and sacrilege to become a serpent creeping on his belly—the name itself corresponding to the word in Genesis which stood for that subtle enemy of God and man;—(3) of the righteousness in which man was originally created and his primitive longevity, in the story of the Satya Yuga—of the deluge itself in the story of Satyavrata and his ark resting on a mountain.

THE TOLLS OF GOAIL HÂT (vol. III. p. 342).

The story of the Tolls of Goail Hât is also told about Junâgadh, but there it is the wife who collects them, calling herself Phuibâ.

C. E. G. C.

QUERY—"LADA LIPPEE."

SIR,—In a memoir of Dr. John Leyden, who accompanied the Mysore Survey at the beginning of the century as Surgeon and Naturalist, I lately met with the following passage:—

"He particularly distinguished himself by translating some inscriptions in an obsolete dialect of

the Tamul language, and in an ancient character called the Lada Lippee or Verraggia, which no European had ever been able to decypher, and which was hardly known even to the most learned Indians, but which he found out by comparing together several different alphabets."

Can you or any of your readers supply information as to what the character referred to was, and where specimens of it are to be met with?

LEWIS RICE.

Bangalore, 9th December 1874.

Possibly the Vattejutta (*Ind. Ant.* vol. I. p. 229; vol. III. p. 333) may be here meant.—E.

NOTICES OF BOOKS.

PANCHATANTRA (Bombay Sanskrit Series), Edited with Notes, I. by F. Kielhorn, Ph. D., II.-V. by J. G. Bühler, Ph. D.

About a quarter of a century ago, the Asiatic Society of Bengal, under the patronage of the East India Company, took in hand the publishing of valuable Sanskrit works which had previously been accessible only to the few, and that often in an incomplete and inaccurate form. The thoroughness of the work was sufficiently guaranteed by the names of the scholars selected to carry it out, and we owe much to the labours of Ballantyne, Cowell, Hall, Böer, Rājendralāl Mitra, and others, the fruits of which are presented to us in the old series of the *Bibliotheca Indica*. Some books, however, are now out of print, and others—the *Lalita Vistara* for example—were never finished. Simultaneously with the retirement of the European editors from this country the series appears to have ceased. It was afterwards resumed, but not under the same auspices, or with the same happy results. It would be unfair to pass by unnoticed the very laudable efforts in the same direction made by the learned grammarian Professor Tārānātha Tarkavāchāspati and his worthy son, who have striven to bring the classics within the reach of the poorest. The number of works brought out of late years by these two scholars is amazing, but accuracy has, we regret to say, been often sacrificed in the desire to bring out a book rapidly. The editors of the Bombay Sanskrit Series are endeavouring, it would seem, to take up the thread where it was dropped by the former labourers in Bengal, and to give us thoroughly accurate and trustworthy texts, with the addition of concise notes in English. How far their efforts have been successful we propose to examine, confining ourselves on the present occasion to Nos. I. III. and IV. of the series, which comprise the *Panchatantra*. We would remark, however,

that whilst the native professor and his son have fallen into the Scylla of undue haste, the scholars here have been drawn into the Charybdis of excessive slowness. Five years ago, when No. VI. of the series was published, we were informed that the *Daśakumāracharita*, *Kaddambari*, and *Mātali Mādhava* were in preparation, yet up to the present time Part I. of the first-mentioned is all that has appeared. Let us hope that the remainder are not about to share the fate of a valuable and voluminous work on Caste which was in the press in Bombay more than fifteen years ago, but has not yet been disgorged by that monster!

Very little need be said regarding the text of the *Panchatantra* which Drs. Kielhorn and Bühler have now secured for us. It is a thoroughly good one. Misprints have crept in here and there, chiefly in the latter part of the work, but perfect accuracy in Oriental printing seems at present unattainable. The notes, too, as a whole, are all that could be desired, and are truly *multum in parvo*. It were to be wished that those appended to the other volumes of the series had been drawn up on the same principle. A notable example of entirely opposite principles of annotating is furnished by the *Bhartyihari* published this year. Regarding some of the notes now before us we must, however, join issue with the learned editors, and we will begin with those in No. I. (*Tantras* iv. and v.) On page 4, the alligator, giving a description of the preparations made by his wife for the reception of the monkey, describes her as *वसुधितमणिमणिक्वा*, which might be rendered "arrayed in pearls and rubies," or "having prepared pearls and rubies." Dr. Bühler, however, renders *वसुधित* by "splendid," which seems wholly unauthorized. The same word occurs in *Bdā Bhadrata*, i. 5, 81: तद्भीतिरित स्वयमपन्नत रात्रिपुत्री कस्मैपन

प्रयुक्ता पुरुषोत्तमस्य, where it evidently means "attired" or "got ready." In the form प्रयुक्ता it is found also in Tantra ii. page 12, and means "spread out," "arranged." Passing on to page 52, where we are introduced to some young Brāhmanas who are lamenting their poverty, the following line occurs—अर्थोन्मत्ता विपश्चितः पुरुषः सर्वं दास्यः क्षणेन भवतीति विचिन्तयन्, "a man forsaken by wealth immediately becomes (is looked upon as) a stranger (or outcaste)," but, strange to say, the word दास्यः has been translated "a corpse"! Possibly the learned annotator had in mind the word दास्यः "to be carried away," and concluded that the poverty-stricken wretch was only fit to be taken away to the burning-ground! We are inclined to think that the words मृच्छन् and क्षण on p. 63 are mistranslated, but this is a difficult point. The music of India and Europe are so dissimilar that it is hard to say what terms in the one are exactly represented by those of the other. Turning now to No. III. (Tantra ii. and iii.) we find on page 17 the expression निधानोन्मत्ता rendered "with the help of the fire imparted by the treasure," but more correctly it should be "by means of the warmth of the treasure." Again, instead of the note on page 50, line 15, we would suggest the words "in order that we may fix upon a plan and the means of carrying it out." On page 66, the following verse occurs:—

वायीकृतदागानां देवालयकुलन्मनाम्
उत्तमोत्तरतः स्वाम्यमपिकुं न शक्यते.

कुलन्म is translated "slaves," but we should like some authority for it. Its literal meaning is "low-born," but such a one is not necessarily a slave, and we have never met with a passage in which the word required that interpretation. In the *Bhāgavata Purāṇa*, IV. 4, 22, it is used in its literal sense as an epithet of देह. In the passage quoted above, however, it would be infinitely better to derive the word from कुल, the ground, the whole compound thus meaning "ground-produced," i.e. "a tree." The vocable कुल, a tree, is met with in the *Kīrtīśvarjaya*, XV. 18, and कुलन्म is merely another form of it, on the same principle as अञ्ज and अञ्जन्म. If rendered "ponds, wells, tanks, temples, and trees," the passage presents a more homogeneous whole than it does if "slaves" are introduced.

We proceed now to No. IV. (Tantra i.), which was edited by Dr. Kielhorn. There are many difficult and doubtful passages in this Tantra, which have generally been elucidated, though we cannot but demur to some of the explanations

offered. What authority is there, for instance, for translating व्यवहार (page 16, line 9) by "appellation;" or महतीनुसंधात् (page 18, line 21) by "after great consideration," when it evidently means "as a special favour"? We cannot uphold either "one who is a stranger to noble conduct (but) possesses manifold wealth" as the interpretation of the compound दूरीदारवदिवचिवचिवचं, which really means "having wonderful dignity on account of his very magnanimous actions." दूर is here equivalent to अति, and is used adverbially. It is used in a similar sense in *Datta Bhāṣya*, i. 4, 183. Then too दृढमनसः (page 38, line 14) means "convinced by what he had seen," rather than "one who has seen conviction"! On page 45, line 12, the annotator suggests that संकुल should there be considered a noun. There is not the slightest need, however, of so taking it. The word तत्र in the sentence is equivalent to तस्मिन् (देवायतने), and the compounds which follow are adjectives qualifying it. The meaning of the word in question will thus be "filled with" or "thronged by." Doubtless the meaning *wick* admirably suits the word गुण on page 57, line 10, but some authority should have been cited for it. It is not countenanced by Amara, Medini, or any other dictionary consulted by us. Could the wick be rightly termed दूध, however? Those submerged in the oil of a regular *diwā* are anything but bright! It would be almost better not to carry the analogy beyond the first line, and so confine the गुणैः to the king. पृथ्वाशिन (page 74, line 21) does not mean "one who requires some nourishing food," but "one who is going through a course of diet;" similarly क्षुधिरौष (on the next page) is improperly translated "the suppression of hunger, i.e. the inability to satisfy one's hunger." It means rather "the check (to your recovery) caused by hunger." The lion was being dieted after an illness, and the want of his usual diet would retard his recovery. We will close with one more instance, taken from page 76. We find there this obscure sentence, गतं चात्मानं मर्त्येण्डियं, which Dr. Kielhorn renders "you are not guilty of his majesty's पिण्ड, i.e. you are not guilty of his death." This is scarcely satisfactory, and we suggest instead, "you have done your duty as regards our master's person." These, then, are the chief points on which we differ from the editors, and they are as nothing in comparison of those of agreement.

THE HISTORY OF INDIA from the earliest ages, by J. Talboys Wheeler: Vol. III.—Hindū, Buddhist, Brahmanical Revival. (London: Trübner & Co. 1874.)

"The present volume," says the author, "opens

wish retrospects of the Vedic and Brahmanic ages by the light of the materials already brought under review in the two former volumes. It then brings every other available authority, excepting that of the Mussalmán historians, to bear upon the general subject." And after enumerating as the chief authorities the Buddhist writings, the travels of Fahian and Hiwen Thsang, the Hindu Drama, Rájput traditions, Marco Polo and other travellers, and Faria y Sousa's History, he continues that these "have all been laid under contribution for every variety of information, and have been further illustrated by the experience derived during fifteen years' official residence in India and Burma. In this manner," he adds, "the attempt has been made to throw every light upon the history, the religion, and the civilization of the people of India before the coming of the English upon the scene."

Such a work as here indicated would be hailed by every Oriental student with delight. But, unfortunately, Mr. Wheeler seems to have no better conception of the magnitude of such a task than he has of "every available authority" on the subject. Hence his three expensive volumes already published come very far short, not only of his promise, but of what has already been achieved by his predecessors. Mrs. Manning's two volumes on *Ancient and Medieval India* are far more trustworthy and valuable to the popular reader than Mr. Wheeler's three. He has not availed himself of every authority, nor even of the best of them; and of Hiwen Thsang's works, he does not appear to have consulted directly the translation by Stanislas Julien, but only a translation from the French of the brief *résumé* given by M. Barthélemy St. Hilaire. Of Megasthenes, he is acquainted only with the fragments in Strabo and Arrian, which he quotes in the English translations of Falconer and Rooke. The *Śātruhījaya Māhātmyam* he refers to (p. 281) "for pious legends of Śīlāditya, and public disputations between Buddhists and Jains"—an idea of the contents of the book which the author could never have entertained had he consulted the work itself, or even looked into the well-known German analysis of it by Prof. Weber. The *Lalitā Vistara* and *Rāja Tarangīni* he does not even name; nor is any work cited—oriental or classical—of which there is not an English translation;—not even that invaluable cyclopædia of Indian history and antiquities—Lassen's *Indische Alterthumskunde*.

In his remarks and generalizations Mr. Wheeler is singularly unhappy:—"few impartial observers," he thinks, "will deny the fact that to all appearance the people of India are drifting slowly towards the religion of the prophet of Arabia,

rather than towards that Christianity which is freely offered, but which they are not prepared to accept." What could have led the author to make so rash a statement in face of the latest population returns, which show that the Muhammadans are increasing in a slower ratio than even the Hindus, while the Christians have fully doubled in ten years?

Again, commenting on the change from animal sacrifices to those of rice and butter, he remarks that the latter "was thus associated with the materialistic religion of the non-Vedic population. This fact," he goes on to say, "throws a new light upon the legend of Cain and Abel. The flesh-sacrifice was accepted; but the vegetable offering was rejected. So far it would seem that the story was intended to enforce sacerdotal ideas. But offerings of grain were especially associated with a materialistic religion, as in the Greek worship of Demeter; and this form of idolatry was condemned in the strongest terms by the Hebrew prophets. Hence the offering of Cain was rejected." We confess our utter inability to follow this logic; and we think a more careful reading of his Bible might help Mr. Wheeler to see that it was the characters of the sacrificers that primarily had to do with the acceptance of their offerings. But he is not particular about catching precise shades of meaning or expression; thus (p. 125) he says—"In Buddhism there is the tree of wisdom, which possibly may bear a resemblance to the tree of knowledge of good and evil;"—in Genesis we read of "the tree of the knowledge of good and evil;"—and he quite misconstrues the expressions in *Hos.* vi. 6; *Micah*, vi. 6, 7; *Isaiah*, i. 10-14, into unqualified denunciations of sacrifices!

His ideas regarding the origin of the Brāhmins are neither very clear nor well supported. "The Vedic Āryans," he says, "who colonized the Panjāb in a remote antiquity, were worshippers of the spirits or elements of the universe as gods and goddesses, and invoked those deities in old Sanskrit verses known as Vedic Hymns. At some subsequent period the Brāhmins appeared upon the scene." Then "the Vedic Āryans had neither temples, idols, nor rigid caste distinctions. But the Brāhmins, on the contrary, appear to have encouraged the construction of temples, and to have set up images or idols." Again—"the Aryan religion may possibly have been a development of the ancient worship of the *genii loci*,—the spirits of the hills, forests, glens, and streams. To this day many of the hill-tribes in Eastern India, still practise this simple worship." Are these hill-tribes Aryans? Śiva, he considers, "was the most ancient and most mystic deity in 'the Brahmanical pantheon,'" while "in that remote age which

may have preceded an Aryan invasion, the Brāhmanas were probably the priests of a phallic deity named Brahma, from whom they may have derived their distinctive name." "Again, the Indian home of the Vedic Aryans was in the Panjāb, to the westward of the river Saraswatī. The Indian home of the Brāhmanas was apparently in Hindustān, and extended from the Saraswatī eastward to the banks of the Ganges in the neighbourhood of the ancient city of Kanauj." Farther, "the Brāhmanas had undoubtedly made their way into the Panjāb, whilst the Vedic Aryans were mere colonists in the land. But the Rishis composed satirical hymns against the Brāhmanas." What will the Brāhmanas themselves say to this and other similar assertions of the author's?

The origin of Satī, Mr. Wheeler considers as a "Skythian usage modified by Aryan culture." "The Skythian Satī was modified by the Aryan worship of the fire and the sun. Agni, or fire, was the purifying deity. She was not only the domestic goddess of the household, but the divine messenger that carried the sacrifice to the gods; the purifying flame that bore away the widow and her lord to the mansions of the sun." Now we very much doubt the Skyths ever having influenced the inner life of another race to any such extent: was satī not a political institution to get rid of the widows, whose plots still disturb native states?

He returns to the details of the former two volumes, and again drags the weary reader over the stories of Rāma and Kṛishna, leaving him no wiser than before, except that "the whole narrative" of the exile of Rāma "may be dismissed as apocryphal; as a mythical invention of comparatively modern date, intended as an introduction to the tradition of another and later Rāma," who carried on a war with Rāvaṇa, whose subjects, "there is reason to believe, represent the Buddhists." But Mr. Wheeler is fond of relegating people whom he knows little of to the Buddhists. He says elsewhere (p. 428) "there is reason to suspect that St. Thomas was a Buddhist Śramaṇa who had perished in the age of Brahmanical persecution;" Chera Perumal, of whom Faria y Sousa mentions that he is said to have retired to the Church of St. Thomas and died at Meliapur, "in all probability" also "turned a Buddhist monk in his old age." Even Manu was a Buddhist (p. 82).

Though a gifted writer, Mr. Wheeler does sometimes write in a style that is unnaturally inflated; and the employment of similes like "the Indus and its tributaries" appearing "on the map like the sacred candlestick with seven branches" is tasteless as it is pedantic. He speaks also (p. 165) of Mayā becoming "incarnate in a dream with a

small white elephant!" "The Kathari," he says (p. 172), "have been identified with the Chatties of Kattaywar in Guzerāt!!" The serpents mentioned by Megasthenes, with membranous wings like bats, whose moisture will putrefy the skin,— "are nothing more," he says, "than the common house lizards, and certainly their moisture will cause acute inflammation." Plithana and Tagara are "two important marts on the western coast." In the name of Zarmanochegas, who burnt himself at Athens in the time of Augustus, the word "Chegas," he says, "has been identified with Sheik;" but he never says who made this or any other of the identifications he notices.

He makes Śankar Āchārya a Līngāyat (p. 364), and does not seem to have heard that there are Digambara Jains (p. 361). Sometimes Brahma, Vishnu, and Śiva, he tells his readers, are "separately" worshipped "as the creator, the preserver, and the destroyer of the universe, under the name of the Trimurti." The Smartha sect wear the linga (p. 393); and possibly the era of Paraśurāma (A.D. 825) corresponds to the era of Rāma's war with Rāvaṇa (p. 423).

When he comes to points of chronology Mr. Wheeler tosses about without helm. First Aśoka lives in the age of the rebuilding of the Jewish temple,—that is, we suppose, in the fifth century B.C. He is so like Sandrokottos that the two may be one and the same (pp. 232, 487); then he ascended the throne B.C. 325,—quite forgetful that in the great edict Aśoka mentions Antiochus Ptolemaios, Antigonos, Magas, and Alexander, who lived nearly seventy years later, or in 258 B.C.

We had noted many more such rash or erroneous statements in this volume; but these may suffice to show with what care its assertions must be received. The author is a good *précis*-writer, and, with the text of Tod's *Rajastān*, Fabian's, Fytche's, or Marco Polo's *Travels*, Faria y Sousa's *History*, or Bigandet's *Legend of Gaudama* before him, he can produce a readable and interesting résumé: but his reading is too limited, his power of observation too superficial, and his logical faculty too untrained, to enable him to generalize with accuracy or to investigate with approximate certainty: he is more of the sciolist than of the investigator, and wants that accuracy without which even such a book as this is not only wanting in what ought to constitute its chief value, but is positively pernicious. The scholar will detect its faults, but it is addressed to the popular reader, who has not the special knowledge to enable him to sift what is matter of history from the misconceptions of the author. To those who can do this, however, the volume will afford pleasant and interesting reading.

NOTES ON THE CENTRAL TĀLUKĀS OF THE THĀNĀ COLLECTORATE.

BY W. F. SINCLAIR, B.C.S.

PROBABLY no capital city in the world is so closely surrounded by wild and uncivilized country as Bombay. I have, both in the Thānā and Kulābā districts, heard the fort guns in places which (for any sign of civilization they showed) might have been in the deepest recesses of the Sātpūrās, and among people as wild, perhaps, as any in the Presidency. The difficulties of provision and transport through most part of the North Kōṭkan are what one might expect in the remotest backwoods. For these reasons, probably, less than we might expect is known about some places not wanting in interest in the country lying between the Bassein hills, the N. E. extension of the G. I. P. Railway, and the southern boundary of the State of Jawār, and comprised in the British tālukās of Bhīvaṇḍī and Wāre, to which the following notes chiefly relate.

Early in the 14th century a freebooting Koli named Jayappa Nāyak Mukhne founded the kingdom of Jawār; and so favourable was the country then, as now, to predatory enterprise, that in 1341 the Court of Delhi recognized his son, by the title of Nem Shāh, as Rāja of a territory extending from the Damangāṅā nearly to the Ūlās or Bor Ghāt river, and from the Sahyādri range to within a few miles of the sea, and allowed him to exercise in its name the Faujdārī of Bhīvaṇḍī.* From that day to this it does not appear that the Emperors ever exercised permanent authority in these parts otherwise than through this mountain robber and his descendants; nor can I discover that the Kings of Ahmadnagar, the nearest of the Dekhanī Musalmān states, ever brought the Jawār territory into subjection. But with the rise of the Marāṭhā power came a struggle of diamond cut diamond. The Āngriā family pushed so far north, especially in the neighbourhood of the fine navigable estuary of Kālyān, that we find lands held under their sanads ten miles N. E. of Bhīvaṇḍī; and with the increasing power of the Peshwās times got worse and worse for the Rājās of Jawār; till in or about the year 1782 Mādhavrāo Nārāyaṇ Peshwā imposed an

arrangement on the Rāja by which he was allowed to retain territory to the annual value of from Rs. 15,000 to Rs. 20,000 only.† It would also appear, from ruins and tradition, that the Portuguese possessed at one time much of the southern part of Bhīvaṇḍī, and on at least one occasion advanced as far inland as G un j, in the Wāre Tālukā. Everywhere along the creeks are the ruins of small Portuguese towers, and sometimes wells; and at Kāmbe, a mile N. W. of Bhīvaṇḍī, is a small square fort with two bastions at opposite corners, well placed so as to command on the one side the Lakirli Creek, and on the other that of Bhīvaṇḍī, which is the estuary of the Kāmwarī river. It is said to be Portuguese; but I had no time to examine it in search of inscriptions. A hamlet two miles off is called Firangpāḍa.

The Musalmāns are numerically very strong in all this country—a curious circumstance considering how little political power they have ever possessed in it. But these are not, like the Musalmāns of the Dekhan, descended mostly from military adventurers. By race and habit pacific and industrious, they are thriving traders and cultivators; and, though many are pāṭils, the temporary service of Government is not much sought after by them as compared with the Dekhanis, who seem to think it the only labour worthy of them. They seem to have, for Muhammadans, some taste for education, and stand alone among all castes of these tālukās in their abstention from drunkenness, the besetting vice of the Kōṭkanis.

At Bhīvaṇḍī they have one or two pretty mosques, of modern date; a fine 'Idgah, date unknown; and a beautiful tomb which enshrines the remains of a certain Husain Shāh, commonly called the Divān Shāh, of whom they tell that he was Vazīr of Bījāpur, but retired into religious life in this place, and that after his death the then Shāh of Bījāpur built the tomb.‡

I have not seen the inside of the building, as I could not enter it in boots without offending the reverential feelings of the Musalmāns, or

* *Rough Notes connected with the petty estate of Jawār, in the Thānā Collectorate*, by S. Marriott, Esq., Collector of the North Kōṭkan. Submitted to Government in 1823;

Bombay Government Records No. XXVI. New Series. p. 15.

† *Ibid.*

‡ This, from the dates, is improbable.

take them off without hurting my own; but it is said to contain two Persian and two Arabic inscriptions, of which I append copies to this paper. There is a good tank beside the tomb, and a short way south of it a small but deep and good well, with a Persian and a Marāṭhī inscription, of which also I append copies, estampages being unobtainable either here or in the tomb. I found no Hindu buildings or remains of any importance near Bhivāṇḍī, nor any at all at the next camps to the N. E. at Parghe on the Agra road, and to the N. at Nanditne. But to the west of the latter is the fort of Ghautārā, which may, for aught I know, contain something to repay an obviously very toilsome ascent; and at the village of Wāḍowlī, half a mile N.E. of Nanditne, I measured a *pimpal*-tree (*Ficus religiosa*) 46 feet 9 inches in girth. This is the second largest tree that I have measured in Western India, the largest being an African Baobab (*Adansonia digitata*, Marāṭhī *Gorakh Chinch*) at Junnar, with a circumference of 47 feet, and a hollow in it big enough to stable a pony in. The third is a common tamarind (*Tamarindus Indica*) measuring 45, which stands near a village on the right bank of the Ārūnavatī river, about a mile above the town of Sirpur, in Khāndesh. The *pimpal*, however, is beyond comparison the handsomest tree of the three, and is justly held in high veneration by the inhabitants of the village, which, as it shows no sign of unsoundness or decay, it may continue to overshadow for many generations to come. Four miles north of Nanditne is the town of Dughād, famous for the defeat of the Marāṭhās by Colonel Hartley.* From Dughād, riding over the battlefield and through the pass in rear of it, it is four miles to Akolli, on the Tansā river, where commences the group of hot springs known generally as those of Wazrābāi, cursorily alluded to by Colonel Sykes under the name of "Vizrabhae."† These springs occur in or near the bed of the Tansā river, every here and there along about four miles of its course, which here lies over a common reddish trap pierced by occasional dykes of intensely hard and homogeneous black basalt. I had no thermometer, but, with the aid of one improvised of an egg, ascertained that none of the springs approach boiling-point in temperature; and into most of

them natives jump at once, though there are one or two which it is thought prudent to approach by first entering one of lower temperature. The water is tasteless; and the strong smell of rotten eggs and gun-washings, which pervades the neighbourhood of the springs, arises, I think, less from it than from the bubbles of gas which rise through it, being certainly strongest when and where these are most numerous. The natives believe much in the power of these springs for the purification from deadly sin and cutaneous diseases. Those at Akolli are clustered round a temple of Mahādeva called Rāmeśwar (from which name one might perhaps infer that it was originally a place of Vaiṣṇava, and not of Śaiva, worship). The temple itself is not very remarkable or ancient. It has two or three good cisterns filled by the hot springs; and about a hundred yards lower down are half a dozen others in the bank and bed of the river. A little way north-east of the temple, in a pretty spot on the river-bank, is the nameless tomb of a European officer, of whom no one knows anything but that "he was a Captain Fris Sāheb (query Frost or Ferrers), who came here with his wife and children about fifty years ago to have the benefit of the hot waters, and died here. Then the Madam Sāheb chose this spot, and buried him in it and went away."

About half a mile down the river from Rāmeśwar, in the village of Wāḍowlī, are the springs of Wazrābāi or Wazrābāi proper, which are in the bed of the Tansā, and exactly similar to the last-mentioned or lower Rāmeśwar group. On the side of a spur of the Ghautārā range stands the temple of Wazrābāi herself; "Our Lady of the Falchion" the Brāhmins here say her name means,—interpreting *wazrā* to mean "a very sharp short sword," though I should have been inclined to derive it from *vajra* (Sanskrit, a thunderbolt).

This lady is a Yoginī who became incarnate in this neighbourhood to destroy Daityas, and formerly resided at Gunj, seven miles to the north, but broke up house there under circumstances hereafter to be mentioned. There is very little to be learnt about her from the people around, and though there is a *Māhātmya* or chronicle recording some particulars about her and the river Waitūrnā, it is not kept here, but by her *upādhyā* or hereditary priest, who

* Grant Duff, *Hist. of the Marāṭhās*, vol. II. pp. 426-428.

† *Geol. Papers of Western India*, p. 108.

lives comfortably on his pay at K u r ā d, some twelve miles away. There are six inām villages belonging to this temple, the proceeds of which are mostly expended on absentee dignitaries of this sort. I really think that when state property is alienated for the support of religion, it would be worth while for the state to see that it is so applied; the temple here, a fine one though modern, is not half kept up; and as the worship of W a z r ē ś w a r consists to a great extent in washing in good hot water, it is deserving of support on sanitary grounds. The Gaikvād has recently added to the temple a large *mandap* of timber, with a tiled roof embellished, among other things, with a picture-gallery mainly recruited from the backs of French comfit-boxes, of which the chief and most conspicuous work of art is a portrait of Mabel Grey in a riding-habit. The goddess herself is a rude stone female figure, holding in her right hand the short Roman-looking sword from which she derives her name.

West of Waḍowli is Gaṇeśpurī, which contains the lowest group of hot springs: the temperature of these is higher than at either Rāmeśwar or Wazrābāi, but still not up to boiling-point; and there is no other difference. There is here a temple of Mahādeva, with cisterns like those at Rāmeśwar. This temple is said to have been built by Rāmājī Mahādeva Bīvalkar, Sar-Subedār of Kālyān under the last Peshwā, and looks much as if it had been. But there are two stones lying in front of it which evidently once formed part of a much older building. The one appears to have surmounted a window or small door, and is covered with a very finely and deeply carved foliage pattern surrounding a sitting figure, probably of Viṣṇu, about four inches high. The other is a bracket* formed of a naked female figure of much grace and truth, in the position of the lady on the heraldic Irish harp. She has a curious sort of *chignon*, quite different from the coiled pigtail of the modern Hindu beauty, but exactly resembling those of some female figures at Ambar-nāth. I am disposed, however, to surmise that she is not exactly a contemporary of theirs.

* It is deeply pierced above, and served apparently to support a flagstaff, or part of the woodwork of a well. (Or probably a toran or flying bracket under a liatell.—Ed.)

† Compare the legend of Wāḷaśēśwar, *Ind. Ant.* vol. III. p. 248, and that of this same goddess (if I recollect

For, in the first place, the brackets at Ambar-nāth are all monstrous or conventional figures; secondly, though the Gaṇeśpurī lady would be quite in the fashion among those of Ambar-nāth in the matter of coiffure, they are all highly adorned, and she in the garb of nature; and while she is just such a sonsy lass as may have been bathing in the sacred spring under the eyes of the sculptor, they are all deformed to that slim-waisted, huge-breasted figure dear to the heart of modern Hindu artists and poets.

From Waḍowli a pass called the Guṇj K h i n d leads to Guṇj, in the Wāre Tālukā. It is barely passable to light carts; but there are two good passes farther east—those of Dongaste and Sāprundā. At Guṇj there is a small tank, well supplied by springs, which apparently was in former days faced with stone walls and good ghāts, and surrounded by a group of Hindu temples of more than ordinary number and sanctity. But “when the *Firangī* lok came, the gods all ran away.” Wazrābāi escaped through the hills to her present abode. Parāsūrama was apparently short-winded, for he only got about half a mile up the mountain close by, and another temple has since been raised to him at the spot where he pulled up. Kālkā Bhāwānī plunged into the foundation of her own temple,† which, being perhaps protected by her subterraneous presence, remains in better preservation than the others. It is a small and very solid building with a shrine and *mandap*, the latter partly supported by pillars carved with figures of wrestlers, fighting elephants, &c., rude enough, but a good deal better than modern Hindu sculpture in these parts. “Hemād Pant built it”—of course. Of the other temples only the platforms remain *in situ*, with part of the superstructure scattered around in ruin. Near the ruin south of the tank is an upright slab, on which is carved an incident similar to that mentioned by Herodotus as having occurred before his visit to a place in Egypt when “*γυναικὶ τρεῖς ἐμύσγερτο ἀναφάρδοι*.” The carving is very rude, and has been, I suspect, the work of a recent artist upon a paving-stone not originally intended for the purpose. It is worshipped with much devotion and red paint by

right) at Chaul, where, on the approach of the Musalmāns, she sprang into a tank beside her temple. The tank and temple, the latter a dome rather like a Musalmān tomb, “are alive at this day to bear witness,” and rank among the triple lions of Chaul—360 temples, 360 tanks, and 360 shoals in the river.

the people of Gunj; but they could, or would, tell me nothing about it. I failed altogether in finding any inscription among the ruined temples, or on a fine well between them and the village.

From Gunj it is about eight miles to Gâtes, a favourite camp in a beautiful grove of mango and jack trees on the bank of the Waitarnâ; and from there it is three more to Wâre, formerly the royal residence of the Jawâr Rijas. Nothing remains of them but a few tombs completely dismantled by the Wâdiris; a mosque and temple of Mârufî—both in ruins; and a good tank, the stone facings of which have been pretty well trampled into the mud by the village buffaloes. Marching back from Wâre to Bhivandî by the shortest route, nothing worth recording is to be seen except a dam formed across the Tansâ river at Dighâshî by a basaltic dyke, which any one not well acquainted with the trap formations would have difficulty in believing not to be an artificial barrier "built by the hands of giants, for godlike kings of old." It might be made the foundation of a good masonry dam easily enough, and the formation of the land is suitable for an irrigation scheme; but the agriculture of the Konkan has not got up to irrigation-point yet—at least on this scale.†

But on marching from Bhivandî eastwards my inquiries were rewarded by two discoveries of some importance. I had been told by Mr. Mîdhavrâo Anant Gupte, Inâmdâr of Badhâna, and holder of one of the Ângriâ sanads already mentioned, that "there was a temple on the top of a hill in the jungle of Lonâd, which he had not himself visited, but understood to be of great antiquity and sanctity, and a place of yearly pilgrimage;" and being at Lonâd on duty, I made inquiries, upon which the villagers showed me a fine but ruined temple of Mahâdeva in the village, which appeared to have been founded by somebody who knew how both to build and carve, and afterwards continued or repaired in a period of considerable decadence of both arts. I had not at the time seen A m b a r n â t h, but on visiting that temple I saw at once that it was identical in style with the older part of the temple of Lonâd. So

upon the 3rd of January I started off back to Lonâd, determined to hunt up the temple "in the jungle," and supposing that it might prove to be another member of the same family. The villagers were ready enough to come; and after about twenty minutes' riding and climbing, we came, not to a Śaiva structural temple, but to, as I think, a Buddhist *vîkâra* which I have every reason to believe has hitherto escaped European discovery. It is in a hill which forms one side of a glen above Lonâd, facing S. by W. and consists of the following portions:—First, an outer verandah 19 yards long by 3 wide and high. A good deal of the rock in front has tumbled down, but it does not appear ever to have been supported by pillars, nor could I see among the débris any remnants of chisel-work or sculpture. About this, however, one could not be certain without clearing away the fragments—a work of considerable labour, and not to be accomplished without pick and crow. At the left end of this verandah is a small cistern of good water, said to ebb and flow with the tide in the Kâlyân creek, about 175 feet by aneroid below this level. It certainly did appear to have recently shrunk a couple of inches at the period of my visit, about one third of ebb-tide; but it would require a day's residence on the spot to certify this phenomenon, and a good many to explain it.‡ Opposite the well is a large group of figures in high relief. They seem to represent a king surrounded by his court; there is nothing monstrous or unnatural, and very little even of ornament, in the sculpture. The principal figures are life-size, four feet high as they sit.

At the back of this verandah is a frieze sculptured in lower relief, a foot deep, and running the whole length of the cave. There are figures on it of pretty nearly everything that an Indian artist could think of, from a charging elephant to a woman on a bed, executed with much skill and spirit. This verandah is separated from an inner one 14 yards \times 3 \times 3 by four pillars and two pilasters. The pillars are all three feet square; the two centre ones have a curious capital like a fluted hourglass. The outer ones and pilasters are plain, having only a sort of leaf at the corners—common enough at Ajantâ, Bhamer, &c.—and a circle on each side. The circle on

* *Fed. Ant.* vol. III. pp. 188 and 307.

† Mr. Terry found at Ambarnâth the remains of a very large canal, whoever built it.

‡ On subsequent investigation I found it was all nonsense.

the pilaster next the well has something carved in it like a medallion, but I could not make out what, and suspect that this was added by a later hand—the simple circle suits so much better with the severe style of the pillars.

This inner verandah opens by three doors into the great hall. The centre door is moulded and has two pilasters, and two stools in front which seem to represent a basket or jar carried upon some one's head, the hands clasping the edge to keep it steady. The outlines of three tiny Chaitya arches are lightly chiselled over it, as an ornament. It is 7½ feet high, and 4 feet 7 inches wide. The side doors are plainer, but have small standing figures at each side. The left one is 6 feet 10 inches high at present, and 3 feet 8 inches wide. The right one 7 feet 9 in. by 3 ft. 10 in.

The inner Hall is 14 yards long by 7 wide, and about 10 or 11 feet high. A cell or shrine has been hewn pretty deep into the centre of the innermost wall, but left quite rough; and two smaller ones have been commenced right and left of it. In the shrine and inner verandah are placed rude modern images of the present tenant, a "Gāndevī" called Khandēśwar. She is a Yoginī, and first cousin to Wāśeśwar both in nature and name (*khandā* = a sword). There is one rough block of stone in the inner hall (uncertain what it represents if anything); and a liūga in the outer verandah. A little higher up the hillside to the left are two or three small cells, unfinished. The closest search, with a large grass fire burning in the hall and shrine, failed to show any inscriptions, nor was there any ancient image. The sculptured figures, I think, are decorative, and not meant to be worshipped. There is a small cross-legged figure under a *pipul*-tree in the village between the Śaiva temple and a small tank; but he does not give me the idea of Buddha. These temples are so easy of access from Bombay that it is to be hoped some effort will be made to photograph or mould the figures in the outer verandah: I should think either process would be easy, from the position of the sculptures.*

The following are the inscriptions above alluded to, in the tomb of Husain Shāh at Bhi-vandī:—

* I have since completed a very full set of notes of these sculptures for the *Indian Antiquary*.

On the east side.

چون زمین شد جلوه گر زین گنبد عظیم
آسمان بر نثارش طائف آمد چون حباب
یاوت تاریخ تعلم با نگی آن قطب دین
نور میباید مدام از حسن قبه آفتاب
1111 (A.D.) 1699

On the south side.

قبة الشرق سوهنا اسمها
قال قطب الدین بانی فکذا
روس العجائب اسمها تاریخها
السعادة والعافی من بانها
1113

On the west side.

گنبد سلطان دین چون بر زمین شد سر بلند
چند از غیرت نهانم آسمان شد رقصند
گفت تاریخ نعامش با نگی آن قطب الدین
قبة حسن حسینی نور در عالم فگند
1114

On the north side.

مقداله نادان بغیب
مقام لالحین بجد قطب
بقاریع عظیم بل غریب
کبیه اقدس بداء الحیب
1118 (A.D.) 1706
بنای

On the well; or at side.

سید قطب الدین محمد خان بهادر سنه 1186 هجری
متمم

کو آبگام دودو باوڑی

विदुद बावड़ी सयद कुतुबुद्दीन मुहम्मदखान बाहदुर शाही श-
अली शाके ११८७ नेदननाम सेफ्तरे सन ११८१ कसतीना
रोजि नागः बावले पाथरवट.

Sayad Kutbu'din Muhammad Khān Bahādur built this milk-well in Shāke 1684; Faslī 1181. (A.D. 1762) Naik Bābale Patharwat.†

† Name of the stone-cutter.

OF BHARTRIHARI'S NĪTI ŚATAKAM,

BY PROF. C. H. TAWNEY, M.A., CALCUTTA.

(Continued from p. 4.)

*On Wealth.**

Down to the lowest pit with rank, and gifts
that all admire;

Hard virtue headlong from the steep, burn
pedigrees with fire;

On valour let the bolt descend: for wealth alone
we pray,

Without which noble qualities are vile as
mouldy hay.

With mind and senses unimpaired,

In act and voice the same,

He moves among us like a ghost,

Wealth's warmth has left his frame.

The man of means is eloquent,

Brave, handsome, noble, wise;

All qualities with gold are sent,

And vanish when it flies.

The king by evil counsel falls,

By worldliness the saint,

Brāhmanas by want of sacred lore,

Bad friends good manners taint;

Indulgence spoils a son, and he

Upon his race brings shame,

Continual absence poisons love,

Neglect cools friendship's flame;

Carelessness ruins husbandry,

Wrong saps a nation's health,

Wine chases modesty, unthrift

And largess squander wealth.

Three courses open lie to wealth, to give, enjoy,
or lose;

Who shrinketh from the former two, perforce
the third doth choose.

Less in size the polished jewel, but its rays far
brighter gleam,

Who regrets the dwindling sandbanks when
boon autumn swells the stream?

Glorious we hold the victor, though his life-blood
gild the plain,

Such the generous soul's undoing, that which
seemeth loss is gain.

* These stanzas have no heading in the Bombay edition, but they refer principally to wealth and its uses and abuses. On p. 3 after 4th line the following lines were omitted by an oversight:—

Water will serve to put out fire, umbrellas 'gainst the heat,
A sharp hook guides the elephant, the ox and ass we bent.

Lo! the same man who longs for a handful of
meal

As a treasure of infinite worth,

When his hunger is sated, esteems not a straw

All the riches and glories of earth;

Hence this moral we draw—in this transient
world

Nothing's trifling or great in itself,

'Tis the mind that projects its own hues on the
mass,

Now 'tis gold, now 'tis counted but pelf.

King, if thou wish the earth to yield to thee
the milk of wealth,

Cherish its offspring, let thy care be for thy
people's health,

For if thou watch to do them good with seldom-
sleeping eyes,

Thy realms with golden fruits shall bloom like
trees of Paradise.

Grasping and bountiful, cruel and kind,

Savage and merciful, watchful and blind,

Truthful and treacherous, policy's art

Changeth its shape as an actress her part.

Fame, might, the power to give and spend,

To nourish Brāhmanas, help a friend,

These blessings are a courtier's lot;

What boots his toil who gains them not?

Fate writes upon thy brow at birth the limits of
thy store,

In barren wilds, on Meru's peak, 'tis neither
less nor more;

Then cringe thou not to wealthy men, but let
thy looks be free,

A pitcher from a pool is filled, as well as from
the sea.

Well spake the *chātaka*† to the cloud,

"By thee alone we live,

This all men know, then why require

Our prayers before thou give?"

Disense we cure with doctor's stuff, the serpent's bite with
charms,—
Against the fool, the worst of ills, nature provides no
arms.

† A bird that lives upon rain-drops.

O *chātak*, listen but a while, and to my speech
give ear—

Not all alike the clouds that on the face of
heaven appear,

Some fertilize the earth with showers, some
fruitless thunders hurl:

This lesson learn—a suppliant speech is wasted
on the churl.

*Next follows the praise of the wicked man.**

A cruel mind intent on strife,
Envyng his neighbour's gold and wife,
Hating the virtuous and his kin,
Denotes and brands the man of sin.

What though the scoundrel learned be, avoid
him, cut him dead:

Men shudder at the snake that wears a jewel
in his head.

The modest man's accounted dull, the pure
a pradiś knave,

Th' austere a sourfaced hypocrite, the meek
a heartless slave,

The orator is tedious, the ascetic but a fool,
The dignified is haughty, stolid and obtuse the
cool,

The hero savage; thus the bad do all things
good despise,

Each virtue with its kindred vice is tainted
in their eyes.

Treachery divideth households,
Avarice is a world of vice,
Truth is nobler far than penance,
Purity than sacrifice,
Charity's the first of virtues,
Dignity doth most adorn,
Knowledge triumphs unassisted,
Better death than public scorn.

The moon when dimmed by daylight, and a maid
whose charms have fled,

A lake with faded lotuses, a good man ill bested,

A speechless mouth, a grasping king, a scoun-
drel in his train,

Are seven thorns that fret my soul with never-
ending pain.

I would not be the kinsman of a monarch
prone to ire,

Not e'en the sacrificing priest unharmed can
touch the fire.

Not e'en a wonder-working saint
Can hope to please the great,
The silent man is said to sulk,
The eloquent to prate,
Patience is held but cowardice,
Impatience disrespect,
Officiousness is impudence,
And modesty neglect.

Those do not lead an easy life who fall into the
power

Of one in whom the seed of vice matures in
perfect flower,

Who with a herd of fawning rogues delights to
engird his throne,

Whose lawless will no bonds of faith nor ties of
blood doth own.

The kindness of the bad at first
Is great, and then doth wane;
The good man's love, at th' outset small,
Slowly doth bulk attain,
Such difference between these two
In nature doth abide,
As 'twixt the shadow of the morn
And that of eventide.

Hunters entrap the harmless deer,
Fishers the finny brood,
So bad men causeless interfere
To persecute the good.

(Here ends the praise of the wicked man.)

THE DVAIĀSHARĀYA.

The *Dvaiāśharāya* is one of the few
historical works that have been left us by Hindu
writers. It appears to have been begun by the
celebrated Hemāchārya, the great Jaina
scholar of Gujarāt in the reigns of Siddharāja and
Kumārāpala, the latter of whom died about A.D.

1174. It was so called because it was intended to
serve the double object of teaching Sanskrit
grammar and relating the story of the Solanki
kings of Anhilwādā Patṭan: this
doubletask being attempted in verses which must
be read alternately to bring out either sense.

* In the original *dhyanaprasāda*. The praise is so faint as almost to be tantamount to *nindā*.

Lakshmi Tilak Kavi made a *śloka* or commentary on, and corrected it, as we are told by Leśajāya Tilak Gaṇī, a Jaina monk, who completed the work as we now have it at Pralādan Patṭan—probably, as K. Forbes conjectures, Pāhanpur (though possibly Pīlād)—at the Divāli in the Samvat of Vikram 1312, or A.D. 1255. The narrative portion of the work does not even assume to be a connected relation; it is rather a series of anecdotes; but the information afforded by it and the *Prabandha Chintāmaṇi*, in reference to customs, manners, institutions, and modes of thought, may be regarded as a correct reflection of the times when these works were written: and a curious picture is thus presented of superstition and moral effete-ness beyond hope of reformation from within, even after the warning lesson taught by the scimitars of the Ghaznvide host in 1026,—though that invasion had probably no small influence in developing such characters as Bhimā Deva I. and Siddharāja. But though such princes might delay for a time, they could not save their people from the fate their grovelling subjection to a superstitious priesthood, with its debasing results, had earned for them,—a fate finally inflicted by the merciless Ala-ud-din in 1297 A.D.

The following is an outline of the narrative portion of the *Dvaidsharāṅga**:—

The First Sarga.

There is a city named Anahillapura, that is as it were the *scastika* of the earth, the abode of Nyaya Dharma and Lakshmi, by reason of which the whole world is beautified. Beautiful are its women, and the kings that have ruled there have been handsome and strong, obedient to parents and gurūs, and possessed besides of sons. Excellent arrangements are made in that city by the king for the support of scholars studying Vidyā. Religion flourishes in it, and the people are opulent and have abundant occupation. It is surrounded by beautiful gardens full of trees of varied kinds. Debt is unknown in the city. Many *munis* are there, and such as perform austerities. Svarga is near to them as are the courts in front of their houses, and

therefore the city too is called the 'pure.' The king's servants are clever and intelligent. All its women are practisers of *Sati-dharma*, therefore the age is continually called the Satyuga. Beside the city flow Sarasvatī's clear waters, rendering pure the earth and the air: here live Brāhmanas equal to Vasiṣṭha or Viśvāmitra, who could produce warriors from the fire-pit.

Mularāja† was the first of the Solanki race in this city. He was the benefactor of the world, full of all good qualities and generous-minded. All kings worshipped him as the sun is worshipped. He gained the title of the "enthraller of the universe," for the subjects of all lands came to his country and found a happy residence. To Brāhmanas he gave great gifts: his enemies, like Dheds, begged outside the town from fear of him. When this Rāja went out on *vijayayātrā* he subdued the Rāja of North Kosala Deśa; half the inimical kings he slew, the other half he forced to submit. The wives of his enemies, that, like frogs in a well, had never in their lives seen anything beyond their own houses, were seized by Bhīllas as they wandered in forests, and were carried by them to the city to be sold as slaves.‡ This Rāja often performed *yajnas*: he caused the *Vedas* and other books to be collected. He slept not in the daytime, and was often awake at night for the protection of his subjects.

The Second Sarga.

To Mularāja once on a time Somanātha Mahādeva said in a dream: "O thou who wert born of the Chālukya race, be prepared to fight with Grāharipu and other Daityas who wish to destroy Prabhāsa Tīrtha: by my splendour shalt thou overcome those Daityas." When he awoke, Mularāja was delighted at the recollection of what Mahādeva had said to him. In the morning the Rāja entered the *matraṃmaṇḍapa* (court) with his chief ministers Jambak and Jehal the Rānak of Kherāla,§ that he might tell them what Mahādeva had said. But at that moment several crown-bearing princes presented themselves according to custom, so that Mularāja was not able to speak.

* The substance of the first five Sargas has already been given by Mr. K. Forbes in his *His Māla*, vol. I. pp. 52-59.

† Mularāja was the son of Rāja, and grandson of Bhuvanāditya, of Kalyān, by Līlā Devī the daughter of the king of Anahillapur, and was adopted by Simant Singhā, the last Chāḍa prince. Mularāja succeeded his uncle Simant

Singha about A.D. 942. Conf. Forbes's *His Māla*, vol. I. p. 65; Gladwin's *Ageen Akbaras*, vol. II. pp. 74 ff.; Sir W. Elliot, *Jour. R. As. Soc.*, vol. IV. p. 1; Tod's *Western India*, p. 159.

‡ Conf. *His Māla*, vol. I. 62.

§ A town to the east of Siddhapur.

but took his seat on the throne. Afterwards, when opportunity occurred, the Rāja told Jambak and Jehal his thought of destroying Grāharipu and the other injurers of Śiva's *tīrtha* at Prabhāsa Kshetra. "Grāharipu,*" said he, "was made of consequence by me, but, as if born in an inauspicious hour, he has grown shameless and slays the people performing penances; therefore, as a man who has been entrusted by another with authority should not be killed, I put it to you both whether, looking at it in this way, this one should not be killed? Say, therefore, what is your joint opinion: should he be destroyed or not? O Jambak, slayer of enemies, who art like Vṛihaspati, and O Jehal, who art wise as Śukra, tell, therefore, at once what is fit to be done." Jehal answered,—"Grāharipu, who is an Abhīr (or shepherd) by caste, is very tyrannical: therefore the order given you by Śivaji for his destruction is right. I think you should act even so. Grāharipu, being ruler of Saurāshṭra Deśa, kills the pilgrims going to Prabhāsa, and casts their flesh and bones entire into the way, so that though people wish to go to that *tīrtha*, no one can do so from this terror; and the seat of royalty in Sorath Deśa, which, from the splendour of Śrī Krishna, till now deserved praise, has become soiled by the tyranny of Rāja Grāharipu. This is the cause of anger. Grāharipu lives at Vāmaṇasthali†—the city rendered splendid by the flags of Hanumān and Garuḍa, and in Durgāpālī and other places he permits to dwell thieves; and in his strength this Rāja dwells at Vāmaṇasthali without fear. He is like to Rāvaṇa, and therefore the devout cannot live there; like an arrow he causes pain in the breasts of the religious. He slays the armies of his enemies and is victorious; he eats the flesh of animals and drinks spirituous liquor; and in the fight he feeds the Bhūtas and Pīśāchas and all their crew with the blood of enemies. He despises Brāhman; this lord of the west, Grāharipu, has caused many Rājas of the south and of the north to flee leaving their chariots; therefore now he regards no one, nor thinks of any, but looks loftily as he walks, as if he medi-

tated the conquest of Svarga. The earth is afflicted from the weight of his sins; and the men of skill in his kingdom, from associating with such an evil one, practise their skill in constructing all sorts of weapons, from which it is impossible to escape,—in discriminating between religious and irreligious practices they do not exercise themselves. Grāharipu is young and lusty, and full of desire: therefore, slaying his enemies, he carries off their wives to his female apartments. In military force he is strong, so that all Rājas have to yield to him. Like Yama, Grāharipu is huge in person, and in temper too he is like Yama,—he seems disposed to devour the whole world or to seize upon Paradise. This Grāharipu causes great calamity, plundering people passing along the roads, and destroying great forts and places of safety among the mountains. He can pass and repass the ocean also: therefore, as when Destiny is enraged with the world, people have no means left of escape. He is very wealthy: the Rāja of Sindh Deśa he seized, compelling him to pay a fine of elephants and horses; and many Rājas has he subdued. Were he to make war on Yama, I believe his only means of escape would be submission. This Mlechha hunts in Revatāchal,‡ and slays the deer at Prabhāsa,§ which should not be slain. He eats the flesh of cows, which should not be eaten, and commits other tyrannical acts. Wise men say that any Rāja who has the power of punishing this tyrant and does not, becomes guilty of his sins; therefore if you do not destroy him, yours will be the sin. If you assemble not an army and expel him, his strength will day by day increase, till at last he will be unconquerable by you, and, on the contrary, will overcome you.||

"O Rāja, though now you could take him if you chose, yet still you keep on a sort of good terms with him. But he is a deceiver, unworthy to be trusted. Besides, Mahādeva has ordered you, O Rāja, in a dream at night; and it is the practice of the Chālukya race to punish such tyrants: therefore consider this. O Rāja, Śivaji has given to you the command, because

* गार—water-animal, and ईर—enemy:—The enemy of the water-animal—a title rather than a name. Conf. Tod's *Rajasthan*, vol. II. pp. 447, 451; Forbes's *Rās Mālā*, vol. I. pp. 53, 58. Probably the Rāo Dayāt of tradition, or his son Naughan, is here meant. The latter was reared by an Abir named Devat. But Amīrji Rānehodji Dīwān's chronology places Naughan 130 or 140 years

before Mularīja's time, and yet makes his son Khegar, the contemporary of Śiddharīja, in the 12th century!

† The modern Vānthali or Bānthali, eight miles from Junāgadh, where the ruins of the palace of Vāman Rāja are pointed out: conf. vol. III. p. 180.

‡ Girnar and the surrounding hills. § Pāñjan Somanāth.

|| Conf. *Rās Mālā*, vol. I. pp. 53-4.

there is no other than you able to destroy him : therefore summon an army, and, as this vile one cannot be destroyed by an army alone, seek for some other resource also, and prepare munitions of war. It is fit to kill Grāharipu, who exacts new taxes from some people, plunders the property of others, slays others. The Rāja who can punish murderers and does not, is a murderer himself : be assured of this and relinquish sloth. As Indra slew Jambusar, as Vishnu slew Mādhava Daitya, as Śiva slew Tripurāsura, so you must slay this Grāharipu that afflicts the world."

Thus spake Jehal. On hearing this, the Rāja asked Jambak, making a sign to him with the eye, whether or not it were proper to slay Grāharipu and the rest. He answered thus :—

"This Vāmanasthali, where Grāharipu lives, is seven *kos* from the Ujjayantādri* mountain and twenty from the ocean, and he has built another fort† one *kos* from the mountain and four (? 24) *kos* from the ocean;‡ and this Grāharipu closes not his eyes even at night, so that he may not be easily conquered. And you think of sending an army to conquer him : that is as if one were to attempt cutting down a great tree with a grass-cutter's sickle. Your army could not encamp within even a hundred *kos* of Grāharipu's city, and when he surrounds your army, then you cannot even render assistance. If, therefore, you wish to conquer this Grāharipu, you must not only send an army, but you must go yourself : then will he be conquered. Moreover, Lākhā, the lord of Kachhdeśa, is so great a friend of Grāharipu's that one would think they were brothers; and other Rājas too are his assistants, Turk and Mlechha, that cause fear to the world; and Lākhā too is a great Rāja that cannot be overcome by any. Kachhdeśa is thirty-two *kos* from Sorathdeśa, so that that son of Phulā Maharāja, Lākhā, is not far off from Grāharipu, and there are many other Rājas to aid these two inimical ones; be not confident, therefore, that the leader of your army, going alone, will seize and bring him.

"O Rāja, the enemy that has the aid of mountains, or of Mewās (forest), or of the ocean can-

not be overcome; and this Grāharipu has the command of the mountains, forest, and the ocean—all three : therefore it is difficult, and there is none on the earth or in the sky beside yourself who can subdue him. O Master, the moment you begin to advance against Grāharipu and the other warriors of the Abhir race, that moment their wives, hearing it, will begin to lament, because your exploits are as famous as Arjuna's."§

When he heard these words, great was the thirst in the mind of Mularāja to do battle. Like a flower was his person with joy : looking at his two hands he stood up and came forth from the court chamber, followed by all the chieftains that were seated there.

The Third Sarga.

Afterwards Mularāja prepared for *vijay-yātra* : meanwhile the *Sard Ritu* (Divāli) too returned. At that season a good crop was raised. The village lords took a share of it from the cultivators, for it is they who have a claim upon the cultivators; and the Rāja took his share from these lords of the villages, because the Rāja's claim is upon the village lords.

When the rains begin, the *kāśa*, rising, flies off to the Manasārovara; and after the rains the *kāśa* returns to the Gaṅgā and the other rivers; and the *Sard Ritu* having come, so it happened. At that time the rice crop was ready, and the cultivators' wives, guarding it, sang songs in the fields, causing to look very beautiful the country. Then, from the day of *Naravāsi*, the Rāja seated Brāhmanas in the temples of the Devas to make the *pārāyana* of the *Veda* and the *Chandī Pāt*. Setting up the waterpot, the Brāhmanas fasted for nine days, sleeping on the ground instead of their beds at night, and abstaining from intercourse with their wives. On the ninth day they made a feast,—on the day of the *Dasarā* they anointed the head of the Rāja with water from the jar they had set up. At this time it is customary to begin to teach children the *Vedas* and other *Vidya*, because this is the month of *Sarasvatī*. It is the custom to hold a great festival to Indra from *Ashād Suddh 8th* to *15th*, and to raise great flags upon the temples. The cowherds at this season drink milk and coarse sugar. The young women in the small villages sport, bantering

* Or *Ujjayantādri*—Mount Girnar.

† The Ugarot of Junāgaḥ.

‡ Probably referring to Junāgaḥ.

§ *Māhātmya*, vol. I. p. 65.

each other, and boys play at *geḍi deḍi*.^{*} Now the water in the rivers and tanks becomes clear, and the sky is freed from clouds; the flowers of the lotus and *bāporā* are in full bloom, and the poets compare them in their similes to women's lips. Because their husbands go abroad for their livelihood at this time, and they are separated from them, many women are in great grief. Now† people perform the *śrāddh* of their deceased parents and ancestors. Now the rice crop ripens, and, by way of compliment, people send a few *śers* of rice and *dhāt* to the Rāja's Minister. In the *Sard Ritu*, when the sun is in the *Śivātī nakṣatra*, if rain fall and drops of it enter the oyster's mouth, they become pearls.‡ Vows that people have made, performing penance, commence in the rainy season, and last from Ashād Śuddh 11th to Kārtik Śuddh 11th. Kārtik Śuddh 1st is called Bali Rāja's day, because on that day Vāmanji gave king Bali the kingdom of Pātala; therefore whoever spends that day happily will have a prosperous twelvemonth, and whoever spends it unhappily will have an unhappy year (so says the *Bhāṣishya Purāṇa*); therefore on that day§ people dress themselves in fine clothes and ornaments, eat good dinners, and go to visit their friends; and it is the great day for eating *pān*, so that even poor people must have *pān* on that day: the *vahu* (daughter-in-law) touches the feet of the *sām* (her mother-in-law), and the *sām* blesses the *vahu*. Viṣṇu sleeps on the sea of milk from Ashād Śuddh 11th for four months, until Kārtik Śuddh 11th, when he arises. On Ashād Śuddh 10th (the *Deśavā*), people go into the fields to look for omens: this is called *śālaughān*. In the *Sard Ritu* the *sāmbar* and other deer shed their horns, and bulls are in *māst*.

At such a time Mularāja set out on his expedition; the drums and the *vohai* were beat: the *śaṅkha*s sounded for a prosperous omen, and the Brāhmanas began to read the *Velas*. When, after waiting the fortunate time, Mularāja assumed his arms and mounted in hope of victory, the noise of musical instruments made known his setting forth even to Indra. The Rājas that

followed Mularāja also came, ready to go to Sorath to slay Grāharipu the Daitya. The *Gar* (household-priest) caused the worship of the horse, elephant, &c. to be performed: the Rāja himself worshipped. Astrologers skilled from their youth in *jyotiṣyashāstra* set up stakes nine fingers high in the sunshine, and began to measure the time to determine the *nakṣatra*. Then the Rāja caused the stickholder to advance: a line of soldiers stood armed at the door: the musical instruments sounded; the Rāja and his chieftains made presents as religious gifts to Brāhmanas and to the recorders of fame.¶ For forty *kos* along the road that Mularāja travelled, the people of the neighbouring villages, the city women, left off their house-work, left their children crying, to come and see the cavalcade; for as Indra among Devas, was Mularāja among men in beauty, qualities, and strength. As the procession went on, great was the throng in the city; in the press many a pearl necklace was broken, many a flower scattered, and the women sprinkled *dhāshat*§ on the Rāja till it seemed to strew the ground. The unbroken *dhāshat* was a good omen. Other women brought flowers, fruit, and coconuts, sandal, curds, *darbha*-grass, loaded in vessels. When the cavalcade set forth, there was not a woman in all the city but was dressed in scarlet, and glittering with ornaments, and her person anointed, lest any bad omen should appear. For good luck, before the procession started from the palace for the city-gate, the whole way was sprinkled with *kaṅka* (reddened) water. As they set out, the horses began to neigh, from which favourable portent every one augured speedy success. As the king started, the *Gar* stepped forward and marked upon his forehead the *tilak*, pronouncing the words 'Prosperity (*kalyāṇ*), prosperity.' *Satthas*® made of pearls were placed beside the throne of the Rāja. Beside him the singers sang, the servants waved *chāmaras* and fans (*chāṇṇas*) over his head. Blessing him, the astrologers said, "May you be victorious! may you be victorious!—may your enemy go to the south, to the city of Yama!" When he mounted, the Rāja paid obeisance to

* गेड़ी — 'the hockey-stick,' and देड़ी — 'the tail.'

† *Bhāṣya* and *śrāddh* or *śrāddh* *poṣh*.

‡ See Roussot, p. 97.

§ This day is called *Jhāṇṇ*, that is *Jhāṇṇ*—the day of salutation.

¶ Chāras, Bhāras, &c.

* *Ṭṭṭa* is 'not,' and *ṭṭṭa* 'broken,' because composed of whole rice and other grains.

¶ Coconuts or *śaṅkha*s, a common sign of rejoicing among Hindus, made on festive occasions on the threshold, &c. of most houses: it is also the usual female signature. It is a favourite Buddhist symbol, and the *chāṇṇ* or emblem of *Sūpīṣṭa*, the seventh Tirthadhikā of the Jains.—*Iti Mūla*, vol. I. pp. 56-7.

the Isht Deva. He rode upon an elephant huge as a mountain. On mounting, the first object the Rāja beheld was a jar filled with water—a great omen of good. The eunuch on the Rāja's left hand kept crying, "In a moment will I throw down the house of Grāharipu, and you shall with ease overthrow his castle." As the procession passed through the bazār, the people cast flowers, fruit, *ākshat*, &c. in the way before the Rāja.

Mularāja's deceased father, Rāja, had two brothers, Bija and Dandaka,* both deceased;—their sons did not serve Mularāja.]

Where the army of Mularāja halted, traders plied their callings as in their shops in the city, and thus they pursued their way to the river Jambumālī.

The Fourth Sarga.

A servant of Grāharipu's came where Mularāja was encamped on the Jambumālī river and said—"O Rāja, why have you come hither? My name is Dranāsa, Grāharipu has sent me to inquire." (He had come, however, of his own accord.) "Have the Brāhmanas invited you, making false complaints that they suffer injury? My Rāja does harm to no one without cause: what they say is false. What enemy have you in this country? my Rāja is your friend. Is it to hunt on the Jambumālī river or in the mountains that you have come? When the Yadavas came to this country they used liquor, so there is no sin in using liquor in this land: is that why you have come? Or is it because Rāja Lākhā of Jartradeśa (? Jatwādā) and his soldiers annoy you that you have come hither to take counsel with my prince? Or have you come merely out of friendship to visit Grāharipu? Or is it to see Somanātha Mahādeva, or to perform pilgrimage at Śāṅkhotthār in Sorath? If any of these be the reason, why have you brought so large an army? Besides, you have no quarrel with Grāharipu, nor can there live who quarrel with him. I see anger in your eyes and you make no reply. I will go and make this known to my Rāja at once."

The Rāja answered him—"You are bold that speak thus in my presence: men like you are few among the liquor-drinkers of Sorath. What

friendship can I have with Grāharipu, who annoys Brāhmanas and obstructs pilgrims? He is worthy to be destroyed: he carries off other men's wives; he destroys Prabhāsa Tīrtha and plunders the country. He is rejoiced when he has slain with the sword those in the act of performing sacrifices. By hunting there, he has defiled the great place of pilgrimage—Girnār, famous throughout the world. With such a Mleccha how can I be friendly? Go to Grāharipu and tell him to meet me on the borders of Sorath with his army."

Grāharipu hearing this, joyfully prepared for battle: the kings in alliance with him, and those he had subdued, also made ready armies at his command. With him were many Mewāsi Bhīllas. His friend Lākhā too, with his army. The sons of Grāharipu's wife Nīlī and his other wives got ready. The warriors wore iron armour. As he set forth, many evil portents encountered Grāharipu, and *Protas*, *Pūścās*, &c., that drink human blood, followed his army. His wife wrote in the Yavana language† to her sons who dwelt at the Bhādar river—famous in Sorath—to call them to the war. Grāharipu advanced with his army to the Jambumālī river. The Sindhu Rāja, whose kingdom was on the shores of the ocean, brought an army and with it occupied the south. Lākhā, the Rāja of Kachh, sent for the *joshis* and inquired of them: they predicted his death in the conflict, but he set forth desiring to die in battle and attain to Svarga. Lākhā cries 'Shame to him whose youthful deeds no one has witnessed! The days of my life are counted; how shall I know their span?' When Mularāja saw the enemy arrived he prepared his army.

The Fifth Sarga.

The Rāja of Śilaprashta, who was with Mularāja, twanged his bow: the twelve kinds of music began to sound. Mularāja and his younger brother Gaṅgāmaha, Rāja of Gaṅgādhar, with his friend Revatimītra Rāja, prepared for the fight. With Mularāja were Bhīllas: there were many Rājas with him, and, regarding Grāharipu's army as weak, they determined to give battle at once. There was a Mārwaḍ Rāja‡ in Mularāja's service, followed by Mārwaḍīs wearing

* Tod's Travels in Western India, p. 166.

† Probably Sindhi, or perhaps Persian.

‡ Śīyaji, the son of Sejh Rāhōd the ancestor of the houses of Jodhpur and Idar.—Rās Mālā, vol. I. p. 69.

long locks of hair on their unshaven heads. The armies discharged arrows at each other; the Daityas, seizing arms in their hands, roared like thunder-clouds: of some the spears were broken; some, though covered with armour and bearing shields, were struck with panic and tried to hide themselves. Some of the Daityas began to offer *balidān* to Durgā and the other deities, of warlike weapons, and to worship them. To conquer their enemies, some Daityas began to call on Mṛityu Devī with incantations. Then Mularāja's Gujarāti warriors, who were skilful in the use of weapons, began to display their expertness exceedingly. A river of the blood of warriors flowed; and many, abandoning life in so great a *kṛthā*, became dwellers in Svarga. On the side of Mularāja a Rāja of Kāśīdeśa fought well; Rājas from the north of Arbuda were in Mularāja's army, their warriors were very valiant: therefore his army being drawn up in the form of *chakravayūha** and *gāruḍaayūha*, the Ābu people fought with the enemy on the banks of the Jambumālī separate from these orders of battle. The Ābu Rāja took a banner of victory: he was looked up to by the Rāja of Śrīmālā†:—he of the Pramāra race slew many warriors. Grāharipu had with him a lākḥ of Mlechhas. Many of his army were cut to pieces: they began to assume the forms of all the classes of Bhūtas.

Mularāja struck Grāharipu from his elephant and made him prisoner. Then did great rage seize Lākḥā, and he rushed upon Mularāja: at length he offered to pay him a ransom of elephants and horses for the release of Grāharipu; but Mularāja said a cow-killer such as Grāharipu was not to be released. Mularāja and Lākḥā then fought with arrows, till at last Mularāja struck Lākḥā with a spear and slew him.‡ Treading down the Jhāḍeja Rāja, Mularāja set his foot on his throat.

The mother of Lākḥā, beholding the body of her son, his long moustache stirred by the wind, heaped curses on his destroyer:—‘By the spider-poison (*latā*)§ may his race perish!’

At that time a number of men of Sorath, dressed as women, taking Grāharipu's children with them, went to Mularāja and began to beg of him saying, ‘Our husband has made us this present.’ Then they were released, and from that day the people of Kachh wear a scarf like a *saphī* for the fame of Mularāja, and the Sorath people too retained a distinctive mark.

With great delight Mularāja went to the *tiṭhā* at Prabhāsa with Brāhmanas. He worshipped the *liṅga* at Somanātha, and then returned home with a hundred and eight elephants and his army.—(To be continued.)

ON DR. LORINSER'S BHAGAVAD GĪTĀ AND CHRISTIAN WRITINGS.

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I.

In the *Indian Antiquary*, vol. II. pp. 283-296 (October 1873), is a paper on the Traces of Christian Writings and Ideas in the *Bhagavad Gītā*, translated from the appendix to Dr. Lorinser's German version of that work. As the question whether the ideas and doctrines of the Indian poem are derived from, or have been influenced by, the New or the Old Testament, is one of great interest and importance in reference to the science of religions, I give below a translation of the latter part of an article by Professor Windisch of Heidelberg on Dr. Lorinser's book, which appeared in the *Löf-*

varisches Centralblatt for 15th October 1870, followed by some remarks with which Professor Weber and Dr. Böhlingk have favoured me on the subject of the dependence or independence of Indian writers on Christian or other foreign sources for any of their ideas. Professor Windisch says:—

‘We have not as yet spoken of the object which the book before us has properly in view. This is nothing less than to show that all the nobler thoughts in the *Bhagavad Gītā* are derived from Christianity, or from the ‘primal revelation.’ It is impossible here to examine minutely Dr. Lorinser's process of proof,

took the clothes from Lākḥā's body (after he was slain by Sijoji), and going to Pūṭan with them said he had slain Lākḥā, and received from Mularāja in reward Wāṭ Therūd and seventy villages, in S. 1301 = A.D. 1144,—nearly 200 years after Mularāja's accession.

§ That is, ‘by leprosy.’

* See *Ind. Ant.* vol. I. p. 276, note.

† Bhūlmāla—his tributary.

‡ Lākḥā is also said to have been slain by Sijoji at Atkot. Other accounts say he was slain by Bijo Sōḍhki, Mularāja's uncle; and one states that Dhawal Wāghela

since it is based upon a large number of particular passages. According to the judgment of the author of this notice, however, the proof has not yet been adduced that in the *Bhagavad Gītā* we have a piece of Christianity translated into the form of Indian conceptions.

"To refer to at least, some general points of view, Dr. Lorinser's failure to make use of Indian commentaries has had, first of all, for its result, that he could not always apprehend the Indian thoughts in an Indian spirit. Secondly, Dr. Lorinser has paid no attention to the proper Yoga literature, and in particular to Patañjali's *Sūtras* with their commentaries: for an inquiry should first have been instituted into the relation in which the philosophical doctrines contained in the *Bhagavad Gītā* stand to this principal work of the Yoga philosophy. Considering its poetical character, the *Yogavaiśiṣṭhārāṇyana* might also present many important points of comparison. The immediate introduction of the Bible into the explanation of the *Bhagavad Gītā* is, therefore, at least premature. Besides, the particular Biblical passages themselves are with too great confidence designated by Dr. Lorinser as the sources of the Indian thought or expression. It cannot be denied that he has actually adduced some surprising parallel passages; but the most of the texts which he has cited can at the utmost claim our consideration only after it has been proved in another way that the *Bhagavad Gītā* and the Bible stand in a near relation to each other. If the author should think to rely upon the multitude of the passages which he has quoted, it should be recollected that a hundred uncertain references prove no more than a single one of the same character.* Has Dr. Lorinser noticed that the comparison of the human soul with a team of horses (adduced by him in p. 60, note 59) from the *Kaṭha Upanishad*, corresponds with remarkable exactness to the beautiful myth in Plato's *Phædrus*? This might be regarded as one of the most interesting examples of accidental correspondence. For the rest, it is much to be questioned whether Professor Weber, to whom the author repeatedly appeals, shares his conviction. For Professor Weber's assumption that Christian teachers and doctrines ar-

rived at an early period in India, and that in particular the worship of Kṛishṇa, and the legends relative to him, were formed under the influence of Christianity, is very widely different from Dr. Lorinser's conviction, according to which the composer of the *Bhagavad Gītā* must have learnt at least the *New Testament* directly by heart. This is the conclusion at which every one would arrive who believingly reads the lists put together in the Appendix† of—i. passages which vary in expression but agree in sense (60 in number); ii. passages in which a characteristic expression of the *New Testament* occurs in a different sense (23); iii. passages in which sense and expression correspond (16). Even the ideas of the Church Fathers are supposed not to have been unknown to the poet (see, e. g. p. 82, note 56; p. 179, note 6; p. 207, note 27, &c.‡). So much the more surprising is it, therefore, when Dr. Lorinser himself (p. 211, note 54) finds it necessary to refer to the sharp contrast in which Christianity and the Indian conceptions stand to each other in regard to the doctrine of the human soul, and when he further (p. 117, note 1§) cannot avoid ascribing to the poet an acquaintance, though a very defective acquaintance, with Christianity. It is impossible to combine Dr. Lorinser's ideas into one general picture. Finally, as regards the thoughts in which Dr. Lorinser perceives traces of the 'primæval revelation' or 'primæval tradition' (see, e. g. pp. 45, 122, 231, 250), he should first have investigated whether they can be pointed out in the *Veda*. Had he done this, he would probably have discovered that the contrary is the case.

"The book before us plainly shows how much the text and the explanation of the *Bhagavad Gītā* stand in need of a thorough revision on the part of scholars who are familiar with this branch of study. The view of which Dr. Lorinser is a representative must be subjected to a closer examination than was here practicable."

In the preceding notice reference is made to the opinions of Prof. Weber on the influence exercised by Christianity upon Indian religious ideas: I am indebted to Prof. Weber, with whom I have communicated on the subject of

* This assertion requires some qualification.—Ed.

† *Ind. Ant.* vol. II. p. 293-294. Prof. Windisch puts his conclusion too strongly.—Ed.

‡ *Ind. Ant.* v. s. p. 237.

§ *Conf. Ind. Ant.* vol. II. p. 291.

Dr. Lorinser's book, for an indication of his views regarding it. He refers me to a brief mention of the work in question in a note to an article republished in his *Indische Streifen*, vol. II. p. 288, where he speaks of Dr. Lorinser's remarkable endeavour to point out in the *Bhagavad Gītā* coincidences with and references to (*Anklänge und Beziehungen*) the New Testament, and states that although he regards this attempt of Dr. Lorinser's to be overdone, he is not in principle opposed to the idea which that writer maintains, but regards it as fully entitled to a fair consideration, as the date of the *Bhagavad Gītā* is not at all settled, and therefore presents no obstacle to the assumption of Christian influences, if these can be otherwise proved. He adds that he regards Wilson's theory that the *bhakti* of the later Hindu sects is essentially a Christian doctrine, as according well with all that we know already about the *Śvetadvīpa*, the *Kṛishṇajānmashtami*, &c. As regards the age of the *Mahābhārata*, Prof. Weber thinks that it should be borne in mind that in the very passages which treat of the war between the *Kauravas* and *Pāṇḍavas*, and which therefore appear to be the oldest parts of that vast epic collection, not only is direct mention made of the *Yavanas*, *Śakas*, *Pahlavas*, and the wars with them (see Prof. Wilson's *Academical Prolations on Indian Literature*, p. 178), but further that the *Yavanādhipa Bhagadatta* appears there as an old friend of the father of *Yudhishtira* (see *Indische Studien*, V. 152). He concludes that all these passages must be posterior to Alexander the Great, and still continues to regard his calculation that this most original part of the poem was written between the time of Alexander and that of Dio Chrysostom (see *Ac. Prel.* p. 176) as the most probable.

I am not aware in which, if in any, of his writings Professor Wilson may have expressed the opinion that the Indian tenet of *bhakti* is essentially Christian. I find no express statement to this effect in his *Sketch of the Religious Sects of the Hindus*, though he there says that "the doctrine of the efficacy of *bhakti* seems to have been an important innovation upon the primitive system of the Hindu religion."

On the same general subject Dr. Böhtlingk has favoured me with the following expression of his opinion. He writes: "Neither in the

Mahābhārata nor in later writers have I found any utterances of moral or religious import which could with any probability be referred back to any foreign source. In this department the Indians have themselves reflected so much, and presented their thoughts in such elegant forms, that with their riches they might easily supply the rest of the world. The ethics and the religion of different peoples are not so different from one another that here and there coincidences should not be expected to be found between them. The line of the *Kaṭha Upanishad*,—*sanyam iva martyaḥ pachyate sanyam ivājyate punaḥ*" (like corn a mortal ripens, like corn he is produced again) "sounds as if from the New Testament, but is not therefore borrowed."

I should be glad to find that this subject attracted the attention of any correspondents whose previous studies have qualified them to discuss and elucidate it.

Edinburgh, November 5th, 1874.

II.

Dr. Lorinser considers that many of the ideas and expressions of the *Bhagavad Gītā* are derived from Christianity.

There is, no doubt, a general resemblance between the manner in which *Kṛishṇa* asserts his own divine nature, enjoins devotion to his person, and sets forth the blessings which will result to his votaries from such worship, on the one hand, and, on the other, the strain in which the founder of Christianity is represented in the Gospels, and especially in the fourth, as speaking of himself and his claims, and the redemption which will follow on their faithful recognition. At the same time, the *Bhagavad Gītā* contains much that is exclusively Indian in its character, and which finds no counterpart in the *New Testament* doctrine. A few of the texts in the Indian poem also present a resemblance more or less close to some in the Bible. Perhaps the most striking is the declaration of the *Bhagavad Gītā*, ix. 29, "They who devoutly worship me are in me, and I in them," as compared with *John* vi. 56, "He that eateth my flesh and drinketh my blood dwelleth in me, and I in him." But it will be observed that the condition of oneness with the speaker is different in each case; and that it is that oneness with him only that is common to the two texts. (See, however, *John* xvii. 21-23, where the same reference to the condition of the oneness is not found.)

In the *Rigveda* some passages occur which in part convey the same or a similar idea. Thus in ii. 11. 12, it is said: *tre Indra apy abhāma viprāḥ*, "O Indra, we sages have been in thee;" and in x. 142. 1, *Ayam Agne jaritā tre abhūd api sahasaḥ sūno nāhy anyad asty āpyam*, "This worshipper, O Agni, hath been in thee: O son of strength, he has no other kinship;" and in viii. 47. 8, *Yushme devāḥ api smasi yudhyantāḥ iva varmanā*, "We, O gods, are in you as if fighting in coats of mail." Prof. Roth assigns to the words *api smasi* in the last passage the sense of "being in any thing," being closely connected with. To the similar phrases *apy abhāma* and *abhūd api* in the other two texts he ascribes the sense of "having a share in," which is, no doubt, the meaning in some passages where the compound verb occurs. In any case close connection is intended. And in viii. 81. 32, the worshipper says to Indra, *tvam asmākaṁ tava smasi*, "thou art ours, and we thine."

The following are some instances in which I think Dr. Lorinser's renderings are erroneous:—

Ind. Ant. vol. II. p. 288: "He is far from darkness" (viii. 9).

p. 289: "Light of lights, far from darkness is his name" (xiii. 17).

"God is light, and in him is no darkness at all" (1 John i. 5).

The words here translated "far from darkness" (*tamasasḥ parastāt*) would be better rendered by "beyond the darkness." They are not peculiar to this passage, but occur also in the *Mundaka Upanishad*, ii. 2. 6, and *Mahābhārata*, v. 1712. The words *tamasas pari*, meaning "above, or beyond, the darkness," occur also in *Rigveda* i. 50. 10: "Gazing towards the upper light beyond the darkness, we have ascended to the highest luminary, Sūrya, a god among the gods." In the line of the *Bhagavad Gītā*, the words *tamasasḥ parastāt* are immediately preceded by *dhūtya-varṇam*, "the sun-coloured," "beyond the darkness." The Indian writer had thus no need to borrow this epithet from the Bible. It may be remarked, besides, that the verse viii. 9 contains many other epithets of Krishna as the supreme deity.

p. 291: "But if I were not constantly engaged in work, unwearied . . . these worlds would perish if I did not work my work" (iii. 23, 24).

"My Father worketh hitherto, and I work" (*John* v. 17).

This is quoted as one of the "passages which contain a characteristic expression of the *New Testament* with a different application;" but as the author translates it the application seems to be nearly the same, as he renders the words *atidevyur tva lokāḥ*, "these worlds would perish," or "would sink" (*versinken*); whereas the whole context (vv. 21ff.) points to the influence exercised by the example of an eminent man on the people around him, and leads to the conclusion that the words should be rendered "these men would be discouraged," or led into error, if I did not perform good works as an example for their imitation. In Rāmānuja's commentary the words are paraphrased *sarva śiṣṭalokāḥ*, &c.: "all good people." The sentiment expressed in v. 21 is also to be found in *Rāmāyaṇa* ii. 109. 9 (Bombay ed.).

p. 291: "I who am the highest way" (vii. 18).
"I am the way . . . No man cometh unto the Father but by me." (*John* xiv. 6.)

"I am the way" (*John* xiv. 6). I am the first and the last" (*Rev.* i. 17).

p. 292: "Dead in me" (x. 9).

"Ye are dead, and your life is hid with Christ in God" (*Col.* iii. 3).

The phrase here rendered "dead in me" is *mad-gata-prāṇāḥ*. It is explained by Rāmānuja as *mad-gata-jīvitāḥ | mayā viśā ātma-dhāraṇam alabhamāṇāḥ ity arthaḥ* | "Having your life gone to me. The sense is, not obtaining a support for your soul or self without me." The participle *gata*, followed by *prāṇa* (*gata-prāṇa*) undoubtedly means "dead," i.e. one whose breath is gone, just as *gatāsu* (i.e. *gata + au*) does. But with a word preceding it *gata* means "gone to;" thus *hṛid-gata* means "gone to, or abiding in, the heart." The compound before us therefore signifies "whose breath rests in, or depends on, me." It is preceded by *mach chittāḥ*, "having your hearts in me." Lorinser quotes Mr. Cockburn Thomson as supporting the sense he gives, but it is not adopted by Schlegel or Burnouf.

p. 293: "I am the way, beginning, and end" ix. 18; (the German of the two last words should be rendered "origin and dissolution").

The word here translated "way" is in both passages *gati*. This I regard as incorrect. *Gati* means "going," and so, no doubt, stands for "path," but here, as in many other passages

of the Indian writings, it certainly signifies "the place reached by going," "resort," "refuge." Rāmānuja explains *gati* in the second passage thus: *gati*—*Śakra-loka-prabhṛti prāpyasthānam*, i.e. "the abode which is to be attained in (or by) the heaven of Indra."

It is further to be observed that whilst Jesus designates himself as "the way, the truth, and the life," Kṛishṇa, in one of the verses referred to, calls himself only the "unequalled abode or resort;" and in the other "the resort, the sustainer, the lord, the witness, the abode, the refuge, the friend, the source, the dissolution, the stay, the receptacle, the undecaying seed;" so that, in any case, the resemblance would be but partial, while some of the ideas in the *Bhagavad Gītā* are foreign to the *New Testament*. Most of the verses cited from that poem by Dr. Lorinser as parallel to texts in the Bible appear to me either to exhibit no very close resemblance to the latter, or to be such as might naturally have occurred to the Indian writer, and to offer therefore only an accidental similarity. Dr. Lorinser considers (see the note in *Ind. Ant.* vol. II. p. 286, and in p. 56 of the German original) that two Sanskrit words denoting faithful and reverential religious devotion (*śraddhā* and *bhakti*), which often occur in the *Bhagavad Gītā*, do not convey original Indian conceptions, but are borrowed from Christianity. This may

or may not be true of *bhakti*; but *śraddhā* (together with its cognates, participial and verbal) is found even in the hymns of the *Rigveda* in the sense of belief in the existence and action of a Deity, at least, if not also of devotion to his service. In pp. 103 ff. of the fifth volume of my *Original Sanskrit Texts* a number of passages are cited and translated in which the word occurs, together with a great variety of other expressions, in which the worshipper's trust in and affectionate regard for the god Indra are indicated. He is called a friend and brother; his friendship and guidance are said to be sweet; he is spoken of as a father, and the most fatherly of fathers, and as being both a father and a mother; he is the helper of the poor, and has a love for mortals. In other texts adduced in the same volume from those ancient compositions, there may be found (intermingled no doubt with many ideas of a different and much less elevated character) the most lofty conceptions of the power, omniscience, and righteousness of the same god, or of other deities,—conceptions which, I apprehend, are quite sufficient to show that, however the question regarding the introduction of Christian doctrines and sentiments into Indian writers in later times may be determined, the people of Hindustān were not deficient in high and devout religious sentiment from the earliest ages.*

DR. BÜHLER ON THE CELEBRATED BHĀṆḌĀR OF SANSKRIT MSS. AT JESSALMIR.

Translated from the Transactions of the Berlin Academy, March 1874.

BY SHANKAR PĀṆḌURANG PĀṆḌIT, M.A., DEPUTY COLLECTOR, SURAT.

Prof. Weber presented a short letter from Prof. G. Bühler, dated Bikanir, 14th February, on the subject of the collection of MSS. in the Temple-Library in Jessalmir.†

In Jessalmir, which was founded about the middle of the twelfth century, after the destruction of Lōdōrva, the old capital of the Bhaṭṭi Rājput, there is a large colony of Jains. According to tradition the forefathers of these people came from Lōdōrva along with the Rājputs, and from thence brought with them to Jessalmir a most holy image of Parasnāth (*Pārisanātha*). For this image a temple was built in the fifteenth century under the pon-

tificate of Jina Bhadrāsūri, to which were gradually added six other temples dedicated to different *Tīrthānkaras*. Through this temple and the wealth of the Jain community, which has spread its trade and banking business over the whole of Rājputāna, Mālva, and Central India, Jessalmir has obtained a high fame as one of the principal seats of the Jain faith. Especially, however, is the renown of the Bhāṇḍār or Library everywhere celebrated, which, according to the statements of the Gujarātis, surpasses all similar Bhāṇḍārs in the world. It was therefore one of the chief objects of my journey to obtain admittance to this Bhāṇḍār,

* Part of this article is a reprint from pages v—vii of the preface to the author's *Religious and Moral Sentiments freely translated from Indian Writers* (pamph.

Edin. 1874).—Ed.

† See Dr. Bühler's letter of the 29th January in the *Indian Antiquary*, vol. III. p. 89 (March 1874).—Ed.

and to make its contents accessible to science. After some trouble I succeeded in solving the mystery, and it turns out that the magnitude of the Bhāṇḍār has been very much exaggerated, but its contents are nevertheless of great value. According to an old list, which was prepared about 90 years ago by a Yati, the *Bṛikajñāna-kośa* contained then 422 different works. It is clear, however, from what I observed, that the list is made with great carelessness, and the number of books which existed at that time amounted to from 450 to 460. These MSS. are mostly written on palmyra leaves, and go back to a very ancient date. At present there is only a remnant of what was at one time a splendid collection. The Bhāṇḍār still contains about 40 *pothis* or bundles of well-preserved palmyra MSS., a very great mass of loose and broken palmyra leaves, four or five small boxes full of paper MSS., and a few dozen bundles of paper leaves torn and disordered. The completely preserved palmyra MSS. which are all written with a pen, not with a stylus, contain very few Jain works. Of these there are only a *Dharmottaravṛtti*, a *Kamavāsīlātarka*, a *Pratyekabuddhacharita*, a *Vīśekhāvaiyākā*, and a few fragments of Sūtras, as well as a great part of Hemachandra's grammar (*Adhy. 1-v.*), and a commentary on the *Anekārthasaṅgraha*, which, like the commentaries on almost all the works of Hemachandra, is composed by the author himself. The title of the latter work is *Anekārthakāśīravarakamudā*. Its discovery is so far important as the genuineness of the *anekārthakośa*, hitherto doubted, is thereby placed beyond question.

The remaining palmyra MSS. contain Brahmanical books belonging to the *Kācya*-, *Alaṅkāra*-, *Nyāya*-, and *Chhandas-sūtras*. Of the great *Kācya*s there are the *Raghuvamśa* as well as the *Naishadliya*, the latter of which has also an old and very rare *śikā* by Vidyādhara. (Conf. also *Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS. from Gujardt*, No. II. p. 90, No. 124.) Then there is also a *Bhaffikāvya* with the *śikā* of Jayamaṅgala.*

Besides we found the following larger new works: the *Vikramādikacharita* by Bilhaṇa or Vilhaṇa, the *Gaṇḍavādhasāstra* by Upen-

dra-Hāripāla, the *Chakrapāṇikāya* by Bhaṭṭa Lakshmidhara. Among these the *Vikramādikacharita* is of the greatest importance. It is a historical work, that gives the history of Someśvara I, surnamed Ahavamalla, Someśvara II. or Bhuvanaikamalla,† and of Vikramādityadeva, surnamed Tribhuvanamalla.‡ All the three are well known to have reigned in the 11th century at Kalyāṇakatakā in the Dekhan, and to have belonged to the family of the Chālukyas, commonly known as Solankis. Bilhaṇa also relates his own history at pretty considerable length, and says that Vikramādityadeva made him his Vidyapati. He wrote the work, as it appears, in his old age, but still under the reign of Vikramāditya, and consequently gives only a part of the history of that prince. The work is divided into 18 *sargas*, and contains 2548 *śloka*s. Bilhaṇa has taken the *Raghuvamśa* for his model, and changes his metre in almost every *sarga*. He says that he writes in the Vaidarbha style, but he uses very high language. His hyperboles greatly mar the effect of his poetry. Nevertheless there are some passages that are really poetic and correspond to our tastes. Besides accounts of Vikrama's many warlike expeditions, already known to us through many inscriptions, there are many other notices that are highly interesting. Thus we learn that Someśvara II. was the elder brother of Vikrama, and was dethroned by the latter. Bilhaṇa describes Someśvara as a madman, who bore a deadly hatred towards his more talented brother, and who, after his flight from Kalyāṇa, sought to destroy him. It was with difficulty, and only at the express command of the family god Śiva, that Vikrama resolved to fight against his brother. In the battle he was victorious, and he took Someśvara prisoner. Another interesting passage is the description of a *Svayamvara*, which was held by the daughter of the Karahāṭapati, and in which she chose Vikrama as her consort. Bilhaṇa, while describing his own history, regrets that he should not have been able to visit Bhoja of Dhārā. The liberality of Bhoja and Munja is

* Is this the name of its author? It is to be observed that many of the commentators of the *Raghuvamśa* quote the commentary under the name of Jayamaṅgala, and its

author under that of Jayamaṅgalākāra.—S.P.P.

† See *Ind. Ant.*, vol. I. p. 141.—Ed.

‡ *Ibid.* pp. 81-83, 158; vol. II. p. 297-8.—Ed.

praised. While I refer to Bhoja, it may be mentioned that we have received from a Brāhmaṇa a *Karapa* of Bhoja which is dated in the Śaka year 964 (A.D. 1042), as also that the Jesalmir Bhāṇḍār contains a fragment of a romance by the great Prāmāra prince, entitled *Śṛṅgāramanjanakathānaka*.

As the *Vikramādhikācharita* appeared to be so very important, I resolved to copy it myself; and this undertaking, as well as a full revision of it, was finished in seven days, through the friendly assistance of Dr. Jacobi, my companion.* The MS. is excellent, corrected throughout, and annotated. It bears no date, but according to a subscription it was purchased in Śaṃvat 1343 through Khotmāl and Jeṭhsingh.

The *Gaṇḍavādhasāra* is a Prākṛit poem of considerable extent; it celebrates a king Yaśovarman. The MS. contains also a commentary and a Sanskrit *Chhāyā*. The work is not divided into sargas, but into *kulakas*.

The *Chakrapāṇikāya*, which celebrates Viṣṇu, is not of great length, and probably dates from the 11th century.

The Bhāṇḍār further contains four *nāṭakas*, viz. the *Prabodhachandrodaya*, the *Mudrārākṣasa*, the *Veṇīśāhāra*, and the *Anargharāghava*, the last of which is furnished with a commentary. The prose-works are represented by Subandhu's *Vāsavadattā*.

The *Alaṅkāra* is represented by very important works. Of works that are already known there is Daṇḍin's *Kāvyādarśa* in a copy dated Śaṃvat 1161 (A.D. 1105). There is also the *Kāvyaprakāśa* of Mammata, with a commentary by Someśvara which I believe is new. Besides there is the *Udbhaṭālaṅkāra*, the *Alaṅkārasāstra* of Vāmanācharya and

a *filā* on a portion of the *Rudraṭāṭikāra*, as also an *Alaṅkāradarpaṇa* (134 *ślokas*) in Prākṛit. The first three authors are cited by Mammata. A MS. of the *Udbhaṭālaṅkāra* is dated Śaṃvat 1160 (A.D. 1104), the oldest MS. of the collection. For *Chhāṇḍaḥ*, there is, besides Hemachandra's *Chhāṇḍānuśāsana*, Jayadeva's long-sought work with a *filā* by Harshaṭa. The *vyāsa*-works are numerous and mostly new. A complete copy of the *Kaṇḍāli* is interesting. The Sāṅkhya philosophy is represented by the *Aniruddhabhāṣya*, the *Saptatī*, and the *Tattva-kaumudī*.

Among the paper MSS. is a very beautiful collection of the Jaina Sūtras from the 15th century. It contains little that is new, at least to me.

The chief value of the Library lies in the palmyra MSS., the neatness and the high antiquity of which make it most desirable that all the known works should be accurately collated through Paṇḍits. All these MSS., with the exception of the *Ragharāṇḍa*, belong to the 12th and 13th centuries.

From Bikanir† I have brought with me an almost complete *Nāṭyāsāstra* of Bharata, the *Setubandha*, the complete commentary on the *Satapatha Brāhmaṇa*, the *Prātiśākhya* of the *Atharvaveda*, together with a kindred *Panchapatalikā* and about a dozen other novelties. I have besides made a very considerable purchase of Jaina MSS. Bhatnir has given very little. The beautiful palmyra MSS. which Cunningham mentions were absolutely untraceable. For chess I have found a new work, the *mānasollāsa* of the Chālukya prince Somadeva, which describes all the pleasures of Indian princes, and chess among them.

CORRESPONDENCE AND MISCELLANEA.

SNAKE-WORSHIP.

At this place, a large village in the part of Kāṭhiawād under Dhaṇḍhuka, is a thānak of Charmāliś, a local name for the *Nāga*. It was not here when I encamped at this village last year. I am told the history of it is as follows:—

A woman in the neighbouring village of Alāu mortally wounded a cobra, and then, for fear of

the Dhāṇḍhal Kāṭhīs (who are the worshippers in particular of the cobra, the other branches preferring the Sun), got him conveyed on a cot to a field outside Khās, where he was found by the people in a dying state, but with hopes of reviving him they carried him to the place where the shrine now is, and spread sand for him, and put a canopy over him to shield him from the sun.

* Vide vol. III. pp. 89, 90.

† Added during the correction of the press from a more recent letter, Allahabad, 20th March.

‡ To this obviously belongs the fragment 794A in Chambers. See my Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS. of the Royal Biblioth. here, pp. 172-173; the chapter on chess is wanting there.—Weber.

But in two days he died. Then they bethought themselves of worshipping him. But others objected that unless he rose from the dead he could not be held to be a god to be worshipped. So they waited and were duly rewarded. For, they tell me, from a hole hard by came forth a fine *adga* exactly like the deceased, and when it was said he must have a consort, two *adgas* followed him out in succession. Then they began to collect money to build the present shrine, which is still unfinished, not having a roof over it. It resembles a wide squat chimney, and contains, besides a live cobra wrapped in a blue cloth, a red-daubed stone said to resemble the hood of a cobra, which appears to be the actual object of worship, and a small pan for fire. This inner shrine is being encircled by four stone walls which are at present only breast-high. On its south-west corner was lying an earthen representation of the hood, coloured red, and much more like the original than the stone in the inner shrine. This shrine, though new, appears to be of great virtue, to judge from the number of strings which are hung on a horizontal rod above it, being—like a large heap of coconuts in one corner—the votive offerings of persons who, have been cured of some pain, not necessarily snake-bite, on vowing to visit the shrine, and tying one of these strings round the place affected in token thereof.

C. E. G. CRAWFORD.

Camp, Khas, 31st January 1875.

KĀLIDĀSA AND ŚRĪ HARSHA.

In my article on Kālidāsa, Śrī Harsha, and Chand (*Ind. Ant.* vol. III. p. 81), I referred to a verse quoted by Śrī Harsha from Kālidāsa, and inferred from it the chronological priority of the latter to the former. With regard to this, Mr. B. Nārāyaṇa Iyāṅgār, writing from Shimoga, has been kind enough to draw my attention, in a private letter, to the circumstance mentioned by Paṇḍit Īśvar Chandra Vidyāsāgar, in his *Sanskrit Language and Literature*, that the following lines, which occur in the *Kumāra Sambhava* of Kālidāsa, also occur in the *Śiva Purāṇa*:—
तद्विष्णुमि* विभो स्तुतुं सेनान्यं तस्य शान्तये ॥
कर्मवन्धच्छिदं बर्म भवत्येव सुमुखः ॥ *Kumāra*, II. 51.
यमोपि विलिखन्मुमि दण्डेनास्तमितविषा ॥ *Kumāra*, II. 23.
विपुलोपि संवदन् स्वयं वचुमतामृतम् ॥ *Kumāra*, II. 55.
Mr. Nārāyaṇa Iyāṅgār states that these lines occur in the 14th chapter of the *Uttara Khaṇḍa* of the *Śiva Purāṇa*.

* Sic in Mr. B. N. Iyāṅgār's letter. Our copies of the *Kumāra* have इच्छामि.

† Paṇḍit Vidyāsāgar seems from this to maintain that

I have not seen Paṇḍit Vidyāsāgar's *Discourse*, which is in Bengali. But Mr. Nārāyaṇa Iyāṅgār has kindly sent me a translation of the Paṇḍit's remarks on these coincidences. He appears to hold that the *Śiva Purāṇa* probably borrowed these lines from Kālidāsa, and not *vice versa*. He bases this opinion principally on the style of the lines, as compared with other parts of the *Purāṇa*. He adds also: "I conceive that a considerable portion of what are known by the name of *Purāṇas* are not old (*pracheīna*). Unless, therefore, implicit confidence can be placed on the *Purāṇas*, it is difficult to believe that the *Śiva Purāṇa* is older than Vikramāditya's† time." And he proceeds to point out further that stanza 39 of the fourth canto of the *Kumāra Sambhava* also occurs in the *Yogavāsishṭha*.

Now in the discussion of the questions to which these coincidences give rise, it would be of importance to know the context in which the lines quoted occur in the *Śiva Purāṇa*. Especially is it so with regard to the last two lines; for in each of them we have only one half of a stanza, and what the other is in the *Śiva Purāṇa* does not appear. But having obtained a copy of this *Śiva Purāṇa*, I am in a position to point to another circumstance of moment in the inquiry. Not one of the lines above quoted is to be found in this copy,—which belongs to the library of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society. Unluckily, I have as yet failed to procure another copy. But the absence of the lines even in this one is enough to cast suspicion on their genuineness. It will be observed, too, from the extracts to be given presently, that this copy contains lines corresponding to some of those quoted above, and to the same effect. And this affords some guarantee that the other lines have not been omitted in this copy by inadvertence or the like.

The last line of the 9th chapter of the *Śiva Purāṇa*, which, if any, ought to contain the lines above set out, says ‡ ते सर्वे च मिलित्वा तं ब्रह्मणं शरणं श्रिताः and the 10th chapter opens thus:—

- ॥ ते सर्वे च तदा गत्वा ब्रह्मणं शरणं गताः ॥
॥ ममस्कृत्य गतास्तत्र नन्वीभूता मयीश्वराः ॥
॥ तान्विषण्णान्स्तरान्दुष्टा ब्रह्मोवाच पितामहः ॥
॥ यूयमत्र कथं प्राप्ताः किं दुःखं भवतामिह ॥
॥ तदहं स्फोटयाम्यद्य यदि साध्यं भवेन्मम ॥
॥ इत्येतद्वचनं श्रुत्वा ब्रह्मणः परमर्षयः ॥
॥ देवाः सानुचराः सर्वे वचनं चेदमब्रुवन् ॥

Kālidāsa flourished in the time of Vikramāditya.

† It may be mentioned that in the following lines some obvious corrections have been made.

देवा उचुः ॥ भवतः किमविज्ञानं यदुःखं समुपस्थितम् ॥

॥ नारकादुःखमुत्पन्नं भवदन्तरात्तरान् ॥

॥ इत्येतद्वचनं श्रुत्वा ब्रह्मा वचनमब्रवीत् ॥

॥ मनो नैव नभो योग्यो मनो वृद्धिगतस्य च ॥

It will be observed that the lines under discussion must occur, if anywhere, somewhere between the first and the last of the lines here given. But they do not occur there, nor indeed in the whole of the section of the *Śiva Purāṇa* treating of the story of the Demon Tāraka. It will be observed, too, that the last line of those just cited expresses identically the same idea as that contained in the line from *Kumāra* II. 55. If we look to other parts of this chapter, we find that while there are no lines identical with any in the *Kumāra Sambhava*, there are several expressing similar ideas in other words. Thus compare the following :—

Śiva Purāṇa.

॥ द्वयोरपि भवान्धेयः सर्वगः सर्वशक्तिमान् ॥

॥ वज्रं च निष्कलं स्याद्वि त्वं नु नैव कदाच न ॥

Kumāra Sambhava.

॥ वज्रं तपोनीर्यमहस्तु कुण्डं ॥

॥ त्वं सर्वलोगामि च साधकं च ॥

And these others, where the point is brought out in an exactly similar way in both. Kāma says in the *Śiva Purāṇa* :—

॥ धन्योऽयं गणना नास्ति पातयामि हरं यदि ॥

And Indra replies :—

॥ याकार्यं मनसोदिष्टं तत्कार्यं कश्चित् स्वयां ॥

Now in the *Kumāra Sambhava*, too, Kāma says—

॥ कुचौ हस्त्यापि विनाकषाणे धैर्यच्युति के मम धन्विनोऽन्ये ॥

And then Indra answers :—

॥ आशंसता वागगतिं वृषाङ्के कार्यं त्वया नः पातिपञ्चकल्पम् ॥

Examples of this description might be multiplied, but these are enough for the present purpose.

Unfortunately I am unable to compare another copy of the *Purāṇa* with this one, but it is an old MS., bearing a date which is unluckily not quite clear, but which, I think, is most probably Śaivāt 1716, and which, if correct, would make it more than two centuries old.

The result is that when, in the paper alluded to above, I spoke of Śrī Harsha as quoting the line विष्वक्कोपि संवृद्धं स्वयं ईक्षुमसाम्भवात् from Kālidāsa, I did not say anything that need yet be withdrawn. For it is at least questionable whether that line does really occur in the genuine text of the *Śiva Purāṇa*. I may add that as to this line in particular, the evidence at present available is stronger than that as to the other lines cited at the beginning of this paper.

KĀSĪNĀTH TRIMBAK TELANG.

THE RING FINGER.

To the Editor of the "Indian Antiquary."

SIR,—In a paper prepared for the London International Congress of Orientalists of 1874, Professor Harnulvy pointed out that "in every one of the ten Turanian languages,—from Finland in the west to Manchuria, the northern portion of the Chinese Empire, in the east,—the ring-finger is known as *the finger without a name*;" and the *Pall Mall Budget* further points out that in the Dravidian languages the word for this finger in one of similar meaning, viz. '*andmika*,' *the nameless thing*, adopted from the Sanskrit and derived from '*adman*,' a name, with the privative, 'a' prefixed. No tenable explanation has as yet been suggested as to the reason for such a term being applied to the ring-finger.

The following verse on the subject,—one of those traditional verses which, like that which enumerates the names of the "nine gems" of literature who flourished at the court of the emperor Vikramāditya, are known to all but cannot be traced to an authentic source,—is current among the Panjābīs of this part of the country.

The little finger is called in Sanskrit '*kanishthika*.' One name in Sanskrit for the finger next to the little finger, on either hand indifferently, is '*upakanishthika*,' and the verse in question is always quoted as purporting to furnish the required explanation as to how the term '*andmika*' came to be substituted for and preferred to '*upakanishthika*.'

It is almost needless to point out that the construction of the verse itself shows that this is not the case; for, the enumerator of the poets did not give the name of '*andmika*' to the ring-finger because, after Kālidāsa whose name fell to the little finger as being the name of the greatest of all poets, there was no poet whose name was worthy to be mentioned and to be allotted to the next finger; but, in consequence of his so being unable to allot the name of a poet to the ring-finger, the name of '*andmika*,' which had previously been given to that finger, thereupon became a term possessed of a significant meaning.

The verse, however, is of interest as showing that long ago curiosity was felt by the natives of this country as to the explanation of the name of "the finger without a name."

To understand the verse, the native method of counting on the fingers must be borne in mind. The hands are held up with the palms towards the face, and the little finger, usually if not always of the left hand first, is bent down, then the next finger, and so on to the thumb, and then with the right hand in a similar way :—

पूरा कवीनां गणनाप्रसङ्गे

कनिष्ठिकाभिहितकान्दिदासः ।

अथापि वक्तुं कवेरभावा-

दनामिका सार्थवती बभूव ॥

"When formerly the poets were being enumerated, Kālidāsa was made to preside over the little finger; and, because, even in the present day there is no poet equal to him, the (name of) 'andmika' became possessed of a significant meaning."

In Professor Monier Williams' *Sanskrit Dictionary* 'andmika,' the ring-finger, is given as a derivative from 'ndman,' a name. Bearing in mind, however, the peculiar difficulty, alluded to in the extract referred to above, of bending the third finger of either hand, I would submit for consideration the possibility of the etymology being rather 'ndmaka, fem. ndmika,' with the negative 'a,' from 'nam,' bend, like 'kdraka, kdrika,' from 'kri;' 'pāchaka, pāchika,' from 'pach;' 'dāyaka, dāyika,' from 'dā;' &c. A Vedic word 'andmān,' unbending, is given in the dictionary.

J. F. FLEET, B.A. C.S.

Camp Miraj, 3rd Feb. 1875.

THE GURKHAS.

The Gurkhā is of Tibetan origin, but his pure Tatar blood has mingled with that of Hindu colonists, who helped to found principalities in Nepāl under Rājput chiefs. One of these was Gurkhā, an insignificant State lying west of the Trisul-Gaigā. In 1765 Prithi Nārāyan, the then ruler of this small territory, began to supply his retainers with European firearms, and to drill them after the English fashion. Prithi soon proved a formidable antagonist to the neighbouring princes of Kātmāndu, Lālitapātan, and Bhatnāon, in Nepāl Proper. He ultimately overpowered them, and the year 1767 saw him master of the whole country, whose inhabitants received the designation of their conquerors. The latter advanced rapidly westward, till, twenty-three years later, the fall of Almora made them masters of all the districts east of the Rāmgāigā. To use an Orientalism, a rock soon appeared in this river of success, the Emperor of China, in his capacity of defender of the Buddhist faith, sending seventy thousand men into Nepāl to avenge the plundering of the sacred Lama's temples. The Chinese marched up to the very gates of Kātmāndu, and its defenders were glad to get rid of their Mongol visitors by paying a tribute to Pekin, besides disgorging plunder. Garhwāl, however, still belonged to the beaten Nepalese, and in 1803 the Dān also acknowledged their supremacy. The famous earthquake of that year, vulgarly regarded as announcing the British advent in the Upper Doāb, was also considered as heralding the Gurkhā conquest, Colonel

Burn marching into Sahāranpur only a few days before the men of Kātmāndu occupied Dehra. At first the Gurkhās ruled with a rod of iron, and the once fertile Dān seemed likely soon to become a wilderness, the inhabitants emigrating, and cultivation disappearing rapidly. An improvement, however, was inaugurated in 1810, which may be ascribed to the determined character of the Gurkhā governors, who, though personally prone to oppression, did not suffer their subordinates to molest the people. A band of marauding Sikhs had the temerity to set the new government at defiance, and, as of old, sacked a village, lifting the cattle and enslaving the women. Two hundred Nepalese followed in pursuit, and every man, woman, and child owning the Sikh name was massacred in cold blood, except a few of the handsomest females, whose beauty purchased them their life. Slavery flourished throughout the Dān till we rescued its people from the Nepalese thralldom. Defaulters in cases where sentence of fine had been passed invariably expiated their fault in a lifelong bondage, together with their families. Parents sold their children, uncles their nephews, and elder brothers their younger sisters. The number of Garhwāls sold by auction during the brief period of Gurkhā supremacy has been estimated at so high a figure as 200,000, the prices ranging from ten to a hundred and fifty rupees a head, while a camel fetched seventy five, and a common horse three hundred.—*Friend of India*, Aug. 20, 1874.

THE TEMPLE AT KANARAK.

The Rev. T. Bailey, in the beginning of 1873, attended the large festival at Kanarak. It was twelve years since he had seen the famous temple there, and he was struck with the changes time had made. Many of the figures have fallen down, and the growth in the interstices of the stones is much more luxuriant. At the present rate of decay, a very few years will suffice to obliterate much of what has been esteemed the glory of ancient Hindu art, but which in reality surpasses in indecency anything to be seen probably in any other part of the world. About 200 yards from the temple lies the huge stone with the celebrated sculptures of the Nava Graha, or nine Brahmanical planets, upon it: these latter also are disfigured, and will soon be obliterated, by the custom of the people smearing vermilion on whatever they deem to be sacred. The failure of the Government either to remove the stone bodily, or to cut off the slab with the sculptures upon it, is distinctly ascribed by the natives in all the region to the miraculous interposition of the god.—*Friend of India*, 10th Dec. 1874.

THE URAUNS.

The Urauns have hitherto, for the sake of convenience, been classed with the Kolhs, but we find that they are not connected with the Kolarian tribes who took possession of Chutia Nâgpur; they show by their language and their own traditions that they are cognates of the Dravidian race, and a branch tribe of the Rajmahâl hill-people. They are the last of those aboriginal tribes who sought shelter in the forests of the Nâgpur plateau, and they have now been on the spot more than 1700 years. It is evident that during such a period many of their original habits have either been lost or modified by constant contact with the Mundas and the Aryan conquerors, who have been "lording it" over them ever since the confederate government of the Kolhs had to give way to the monarchical constitution forced upon them by the ancestors of the Nâgavañsis. It is therefore not at all surprising to find their language stocked with

Hindi and Munda words, and to see them celebrate the Munda festivals and execute the dances and many of the songs of the latter. They are somewhat inferior in physique to the Mundas, but their limbs are more pliable and enduring and full of vigour. An Uraun thinks it quite natural to dance the whole night on the Akhra (dancing-place) and to go to his work at once on leaving it in the morning. They are of an exceedingly cheerful disposition and as truthful as the Kolhs. There is only one drawback to this amiable picture of the Urauns, and that is their insatiable thirst. Drunkenness is the national vice of the tribe. Everybody drinks, and formerly it was not at all an uncommon thing to find a whole village completely drunk; now-a-days they repair in groups of two or three to the grogshops, established in every respectable Uraun village, as early as eight o'clock A.M., in order to take their morning cup.—*Friend of India*, 10th Dec. 1874.

BOOK NOTICES.

RECORDS OF THE PAST: being English Translations of the Assyrian and Egyptian Monuments. Published under the sanction of the Society of Biblical Archaeology. Vol. I. Assyrian Texts, Vol. II. Egyptian Texts.

These little volumes of translations are of very great antiquarian interest, from the remote antiquity of the texts they translate, as well as their unique character. The volumes are brought out under the general editorship of Dr. S. Birch, but the translations are "printed as received, and each translator is only responsible for his own portion of the work;" and to make the volumes "as popular as possible, and make the information as simple as it can be given, the translations are only accompanied by such notes as are absolutely required to explain intelligibly a few of the more obscure passages." We could have wished that the notes had been far more numerous, and that the editor had added references from one paper to another and tried to obtain more uniformity of spelling: e.g. Mr. Sayce has 'Carchemish' at p. 14 (vol. I.), and 'Istar' and 'Nin-eigal' (p. 135); while Mr. H. Fox Talbot has at p. 53 'Karkamish,' and 'Ishtar' and 'Nin-ki-gal' (p. 144).

The principal translators in the first volume are Rev. A. H. Sayce, H. Fox Talbot, George Smith, and Sir H. Rawlinson; and, as might be expected, the work of each is a model for the translators of ancient inscriptions: each line of the original is translated by itself, but so expressed that we read on line after line without much feeling the great difficulty which the translator has thus had to grapple with.

The Assyrian volume consists of inscriptions of Rimmon-Nirari, Khammurabi, Samas-Rimmon, two cylinders and the private Will of Sennacherib, Annals of Assurbanipal, the Behistun Inscription, Exorcisms, Private Contract Tablets, Legend of Ishtar, and Astronomical Tables. Of the Exorcisms, which are all very much alike, we may quote one—" (On) the sick man by means of sacrifices may perfect health shine like bronze; may the Sun-god give this man life; may Merodach, the eldest Son of the deep, (give him) strength, prosperity, (and) health: may the king of heaven preserve, may the king of earth preserve."

The Legend of Ishtar, the goddess of Love, descending to Hades is curious, though the narrative does not state the object of her descent. We quote Mr. H. Fox Talbot's version *in extenso*:-

"Column I. ¹ To the land of Hades, the region of (. . .) ² Ishtar, daughter of the Moon-god San, turned her mind, ³ and the daughter of San fixed her mind [to go there]: ⁴ to the House of Eternity: the dwelling of the god *Ekalla*: ⁵ to the House men enter—but cannot depart from: ⁶ to the Road men go—but cannot return. ⁷ The abode of darkness and famine, ⁸ where Earth is their food: their nourishment Clay: ⁹ light is not seen: in darkness they dwell: ¹⁰ ghosts, like birds, flutter their wings there: ¹¹ on the door and gateposts the dust lies undisturbed.

"¹² When Ishtar arrived at the gate of Hades, ¹³ to the keeper of the gate a word she spoke: ¹⁴ 'O keeper of the entrance! open thy gate! ¹⁵ 'Open

thy gate! again, that I may enter! ¹⁶ If thou openest not thy gate, and I enter not, ¹⁷ I will assault the door: I will break down the gate: ¹⁸ I will attack the entrance: I will split open the portals. ¹⁹ I will raise the dead to be the devourers of the living! ²⁰ Upon the living the dead shall prey! ²¹ Then the Porter opened his mouth and spoke, ²² and said to the great Ishtar, ²³ Stay, Lady! do not shake down the door! I ²⁴ will go, and tell this to the Queen Nin-ki-gal.† ²⁵ The Porter entered, and said to Nin-ki-gal, ²⁶ 'These curses thy sister Ishtar [utters],‡ ²⁷ blaspheming thee with great curses' [. . .].

" ²⁸ When Nin-ki-gal heard this, [. . .] ²⁹ she grew pale, like a flower that is cut off: ³⁰ she trembled, like the stem of a reed: ³¹ 'I will cure her rage,' she said: 'I will cure her fury: ³² these curses I will repay to her! ³³ Light up consuming flames! light up blazing straw! ³⁴ Let her doom be with the husbands who deserted their wives! ³⁵ Let her doom be with the wives who from their husbands' sides departed! ³⁶ Let her doom be with youths who led dishonoured lives! ³⁷ Go, Porter, open the gate for her, ³⁸ but strip her, like others at other times.' ³⁹ The Porter went and opened the gate. ⁴⁰ 'Enter Lady of Tiggaba city!§ It is permitted! ⁴¹ May the sovereign of Hades rejoice at thy presence! || ⁴² 'The first gate admitted her, and stopped her: there was taken off the great Crown from her head. ⁴³ 'Keeper! do not take off from me the great Crown from my head!' ⁴⁴ 'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands its removal.'

" ⁴⁵ The second gate admitted her, and stopped her: there were taken off the earrings of her ears. ⁴⁶ 'Keeper! do not take off from me the earrings of my ears!' ⁴⁷ 'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands their removal!'

" ⁴⁸ The third gate admitted her, and stopped her: there were taken off the precious stones from her head. ⁴⁹ 'Keeper! do not take off from me the precious stones from my head!' ⁵⁰ 'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands their removal!'

" ⁵¹ The fourth gate admitted her, and stopped

her: there were taken off the small lovely gems from her forehead. ⁵² 'Keeper! do not take off from me the small lovely gems from my forehead!' ⁵³ 'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands their removal!'

" ⁵⁴ The fifth gate admitted her, and stopped her: there was taken off the central girdle of her waist. ⁵⁵ 'Keeper! do not take off from me the central girdle from my waist!' ⁵⁶ 'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands its removal!'

" ⁵⁷ The sixth gate admitted her, and stopped her: there were taken off the golden rings of her hands and feet. ⁵⁸ 'Keeper! do not take off from me the golden rings of my hands and feet!' ⁵⁹ 'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands their removal!'

" ⁶⁰ The seventh gate admitted her, and stopped her: there was taken off the last garment from her body. ⁶¹ 'Keeper! do not take off from me the last garment from my body!' ⁶² 'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands its removal!'

" ⁶³ After that mother Ishtar had descended into Hades, ⁶⁴ Nin-ki-gal saw her, and stormed on meeting her. ⁶⁵ Ishtar lost her reason, and heaped curses upon her. ⁶⁶ Nin-ki-gal opened her mouth and spoke, ⁶⁷ to Namtar her messenger a command she gave: ⁶⁸ Go, Namtar! [some words lost] ⁶⁹ Bring her out for punishment.'¶

" Column II.—¹ The divine messenger of the gods lacerated his face before them.* ² The assembly of the gods was full,† ³ the Sun came along with the Moon his father. ⁴ Weeping he spoke thus to Hea the king: ⁵ 'Ishtar descended into the earth; and she did not rise again: ⁶ and since the time that mother Ishtar descended into Hades, ⁷ the bull has not sought the cow, nor the male of any animal the female. ⁸ The slave and her master [some words lost]; ⁹ the master has ceased from commanding: ¹⁰ the slave has ceased from obeying.' ¹¹ Then the god Hea in the depth of his mind laid a plan: ¹² he formed, for her escape, the figure of a man of clay.‡ ¹³ 'Go to save her, Phantom! present thyself at the portal of

* This very violent language is evidently introduced by the writer of this Legend in order to justify the subsequent wrath of Proserpine.

† Nin-ki-gal answers to the Proserpine of the Latins. Her name means "goddess of the great region," i.e. Hades. She is also identified with Gula or Bala (the *Baba* or "Chaos" of Gen. i. 2), "The Lady of the House of Death," and wife of Hea or Nin-a-su.

‡ The end of this and several following lines is broken off, which makes the translation uncertain.

§ A principal seat of Ishtar's worship.

|| Ironical.

¶ The end of this line is lost, and all the remaining lines of column I. are similarly mutilated; the meaning in an abridged form is this;—Namtar is commanded to afflict

Ishtar with dire diseases of the eyes, the side, the feet, the heart, and the head. The story then says that after the goddess of Love had descended into Hades, the world soon felt the loss of her influence. But these lines, which are much broken, are better preserved in the second column, where they are repeated.

* A sign of violent grief. Forbidden in Deut. xiv. 1, Lev. xix. 28. The bleeding face betokened a Messenger of Evil News.

† Line injured: sense doubtful.

‡ The original has *assinnu*, which I have derived from the Chaldean word *sin*, 'clay.' But this is mere conjecture. The meaning evidently is, that Hea moulded a figure and breathed life into it. Hea was the god to whom all clever inventions were attributed. "Lord of deep thoughts" was one of his most usual titles.

Hades; ¹⁴ the seven gates of Hades will open before thee, ¹⁵ Nin-ki-gal will see thee and be pleased with thee. ¹⁶ When her mind shall be grown calm, and her anger shall be worn off, ¹⁷ awe her with the names of the great gods! ¹⁸ Prepare thy frauds! On deceitful tricks fix thy mind! ¹⁹ The chiefest deceitful trick! Bring forth fishes of the waters out of an empty vessel! ²⁰ This thing will please Nin-ki-gal: ²¹ then to Ishtar she will restore her clothing. ²² A great reward for these things shall not fail. ²³ Go save her, Phantom! and the great assembly of the people shall crown thee! ²⁴ Meats, the first of the city, shall be thy food! ²⁵ Wine, the most delicious in the city, shall be thy drink! ²⁶ To be the Ruler of a palace shall be thy rank! ²⁷ A throne of state shall be thy seat! ²⁸ Magician and Conjuror shall bow down before thee.*

* ²⁹ Nin-ki-gal† opened her mouth and spoke; ³⁰ to Namtar her messenger a command she gave: ³¹ 'Go, Namtar! clothe the Temple of Justice!‡ ³² Adorn the images (♀) and the altars (♂)! ³³ Bring out Anunnak§! Seat him on a golden throne! ³⁴ Pour out for Ishtar the waters of life, and let her depart from my dominions!' ³⁵ Namtar went, and clothed the Temple of Justice; ³⁶ he adorned the images and the altars; ³⁷ he brought out Anunnak; on a golden throne he seated him; ³⁸ he poured out for Ishtar the waters of life, and let her go. ³⁹ Then the first gate let her forth, and restored to her—the first garment of her body. ⁴⁰ The second gate let her forth, and restored to her—the diamonds of her hands and feet. ⁴¹ The third gate let her forth, and restored to her—the central girdle of her waist. ⁴² The fourth gate let her forth, and restored to her—the small lovely gems of her forehead. ⁴³ The fifth gate let her forth, and restored to her—the precious stones of her head. ⁴⁴ The sixth gate let her forth, and restored to her—the earrings of her ears. ⁴⁵ The seventh gate let her forth, and restored to her—the great Crown on her head."||

Having devoted so much space to the first volume, we can hardly do justice to the second somewhat larger one, devoted to Egyptian texts, with an interesting preface by the general editor, who also contributes the translations of the Inscription of Una, and four texts under the general heading of the Annals of Tothmes. The other papers are Instructions of Amenemhat, by G. Mas-

pero; the War of Rameses II. with the Khita, by Prof. Lushington; Inscription of Pianchi Mer-Amon, by the Rev. Canon Cook; Tablet of Newer-Hotep, by P. Pierret; Travels of an Egyptian, by Fr. Chabas; Lamentations of Isis and Nephthys, by P. J. de Herrack; Hymn to Amen-Ra, and Tale of the Doomed Prince, by C. W. Goodwin; and Tale of the Two Brothers—in which a story very like that of Joseph and Zuleika forms the turning point—by P. Le Page Renouf; with Calendar, Table of Dynasties, Weights and Measures; and a list of farther texts for translation,—the Assyrian arranged by G. Smith, and the Egyptian by P. Le Page Renouf,—which lists sufficiently indicate the large extent of these literatures as already known to us. A third volume is also announced, containing among other interesting texts the Deluge Tablet and the Assyrian Canon of Berossus, by George Smith.

ESSAYS ON THE LANGUAGES, LITERATURE, AND RELIGION OF NEPAL AND TIBET: together with farther papers on the Geography, Etymology, and Commerce of those countries. By H. H. Hodgson, Esq. Reprinted with corrections and additions from "Illustrations of the Literature and Religion of the Buddhists," Serampore, 1841; and "Selections from the Records of the Government of Bengal," No. xxvii. 1857. London: Triibner and Co.

The anonymous editor of this volume informs us that the articles in it are reprints of the papers as first reprinted in the *Phoenix*, consisting of the original essays in the "Illustrations" and volume of "Selections," with numerous marginal notes, introduced into the text, from Mr. Hodgson's own copies of these two volumes. To the papers that appeared in the *Phoenix* only eight pages, completing the paper on the 'commerce of Nepal,' have been added. Hence the present volume wants three of the papers that appeared in the "Illustrations," viz.—'IX. Remarks on an Inscription in the Randa and Tibetan characters'; 'X. Account of a visit to the ruins of Simroun'; and 'XII. Extract of Proceedings of the Royal Asiatic Society': and of those that appeared in the "Selections"—'IV. Route from Kathmandu to Darjiling'; 'V. Route of Nepalese mission to Peking'; 'XII. 1. Some account of the systems of Law and Police as recognized in the state of Nepal'; and, '2. On the Law and Legal Practice of Nepal as regards familiar intercourse between a Hindu and an outcast.' These are serious deficiencies, and all the more so

ing a magnificent hall or palace.

§ A Genius, who is often mentioned. Here he seems to act the part of a judge, pronouncing the absolution of Ishtar.

|| There are 13 more lines, but they are much broken, and they appear not to relate to the above legend. At any rate they belong to another Chapter of it, which has not been hitherto alluded to. A satisfactory translation of them can therefore hardly be given.

* The present legend was probably a kind of Miracle Play which was actually performed in one of the temples. Juggling tricks, which have been known in the East from time immemorial (vide Pharaoh's magicians), were probably introduced for the amusement of the audience. Only one is related here, but there may have been many more.

† The things commanded are now supposed to have been successfully performed.

‡ This seems to be the final scene of the Play, represent-

that the wanting papers are several times referred to in this reprint. Mr. Hodgson's papers are of such sterling value that we cannot but look on the appearance of this volume with disappointment: it must stand in the way of the publication of a more complete collection, and, besides the disadvantage of a double pagination for the two parts, it is disfigured by very numerous press errors, only a portion of which are noticed in the three

pages of 'Additions and corrections' prefixed. The Index of three pages is also utterly inadequate to enable the reader to refer with facility to the very minute and varied information in the volume. We trust some worthier and more complete reprint of all the invaluable essays of the veteran who first made available the Buddhist literature of Nepal and Tibet to European scholars, will yet be published.

THE BUDDHIST WORKS IN CHINESE IN THE INDIA OFFICE LIBRARY.*

BY REV. SAMUEL BEAL.

There are 72 distinct Buddhist compilations in 112 volumes among the Chinese books in the Library of the India Office. Of these 47 are translations from the Sanskrit.

1. There are two copies of a work styled the *Mo-ho-pan-nyi-pan-king* (i.e. the *Mahāparinibbāna Sutta*). I was anxious to determine whether this work resembled the *Sūtra* known by the same name in the Southern School (Ceylon, Burmah, &c.); and, if not, to investigate, so far as possible, the degree and character of the divergence.

The general outline is this; Buddha, on a certain occasion, proceeded to Kinsinagam, and entering a grove of *sāla* trees, there reposed. He received a gift of food from Chanda, an artizan of the neighbouring town. After partaking of the food he was seized with illness. He discoursed through the night with his disciples, and disputed with certain heretical teachers. At early dawn he turned on his right side, with his head to the north, and died. The *sāla* trees bent down to form a canopy over his head. The account then proceeds to relate the circumstance of his cremation, and the subsequent disputes, between the Mallas and others, for his ashes.

In these main features the Northern *sūtra* is in agreement with the Southern,† but when considered in detail the divergence between the two is great. The whole of the first and some portion of the second books of the Chinese edition is occupied by the narrative of Chanda's offering; the details are most minute and wearisome, consisting of sections of a regularly recurring order. In the subsequent books the narrative is occupied with laboured proofs that Nirvāṇa is not the cessation of being, but the perfection of

it, and that the four characteristics of Nirvāṇa are these:—Personality, Purity, Happiness, and Eternity. One chief peculiarity of this book is the particular stress it lays on the fact that it was the first made of all the *Vāipulya* class of Buddhist works, and for that reason it sometimes gives expression to doubts whether or no it would be acknowledged as belonging to the canon. The history of Buddha's controversies with the heretical doctors Kaśyāpa, Basita, and others, is of an interesting nature, the point of the argument in every case being to prove that Nirvāṇa is the one true and universal condition of being, in opposition to all pre-existing theories respecting a future life in heaven, or that unintelligible state of existence supposed to be enjoyed in the Arupa worlds.

From the consideration of this *Sūtra* it seems likely that the plan adopted in the later (Northern) school of Buddhism, in the composition of their works (the *Mahāyāna* and *Vāipulya Sūtras*), was to take the shorter and more ancient scriptures as a germ, and, by the interpolation of dialogues and discussions, and at the same time by tedious expansion of trivial events occurring in the course of the narrative, to produce a work under the same name of a totally different character. This method of development, I think, may be observed in nearly all the works of which we possess both Northern and Southern versions.

2. The above remarks apply with equal force to the *Fan-wang-king*. This is a Northern version of the *Brahmajāla Sūtra*, a work well known through the pages of the *Ceylon Friend*, in which Mr. Gogerly published a brief translation of it. The Chinese version was made by Kumārajīva about 420 A.D., but it has none

* Slightly abridged from Mr. Beal's official report.

† Mr. Turner published a brief outline of the *Mahāpari-*

nibbāna Sutta, from the Pāli, in the *Asiatic Society's Journal of Bengal*.

of the characteristics of the Pali work bearing the same name. As an instance of the dissimilarity, the Chinese version speaks of the origin of the name *Brahmajāla* as connected with the curtain (net, *jāla*) that surrounds the domain of Brahma or Indra,* and compares the gems that adorn that net to the countless worlds of space, over all which *Vairojana* is supreme. Whereas the title is explained in the South as "a net in which Buddha caught the Brāhmanas."

The Chinese translation is only a portion of the entire work, and recounts the rules which bind the *Bodhisatwa*, in the same way as the *Pratimoksha* deals with the rules of the *Bhikkhus*. All this is so foreign to the drift and object of the Southern Sūtra, that it is plain there is but little connection between the two, except in the name, which was borrowed probably to give popularity and authority to the expanded work.

3. The library possesses a Chinese copy of the *Abhinishkrāmāna Sūtra*, under the name of *Fo-pen-hing-tsi-king*. The chief interest attaching to this book is the number of episodes (*Avadānas*) and *Jātakas* contained in it. Some of these will be found to explain the temple sculptures at Sānchi and Amravati and Boro Bodor. I am inclined also to think that many of the newly discovered sculptures found by the Archaeological Surveyor of India at Bharhut will be explained to some extent in this work. It seems probable that the book under review is only the expansion of the *Fo-pen-hing-king*, the earliest known translation of the life of Buddha. (This work was produced in China about 75 A.D.) My reason for this opinion is (1) the similarity of name; the addition of the symbol "tsi" to *Fo-pen-hing* would indicate that the new work was founded upon the more ancient one. (2) I find from the Buddhist Encyclopædia *Fa-yuen-chen-lin*, that passages quoted from the *Fo-pen-hing* really occur in the *Fo-pen-hing-tsi-king*. If my opinion is correct, it will tend to a settlement of the question of the date of the legends and stories, which are mixed up in such a remarkable manner, in the history of the founder of Buddhism.

4. Perhaps the most interesting result of the examination of these books is derived from a

work entitled *Kōy-tsang-yo-shūo*. In this book there are fifty Sūtras, translated at different dates and by various scholars, all of them from Sanskrit or Pali. The dates extend from A.D. 70 to A.D. 600. Among these Sūtras is one called the *Chen-tsen-king*; this I found to be a translation of the *Sāma Jātaka*, which is in fact apart of the story of *Dāsāratha* and *Rāma*. This Jātaka has been briefly translated from the Singalese by Spence Hardy (*Eastern Monachism*, p. 275), and I have identified it with the Sānchi sculpture found in Plate xxxii., fig. 1, of *Tree and Serpent Worship*. The Chinese version of this Jātaka is full and complete, and I hope soon to be able to publish it. A singular circumstance connected with the title of this Sūtra or Jātaka is this:—In the history of Fa-hian's travels (p. 157) it is stated that when in Ceylon, he witnessed on one occasion a religious festival during which pictures of Buddha's previous births were exhibited and hung up on each side of the road. Among others he speaks of the "birth as a flash of light" (the Chinese word is 'chen'). Rémusat and his annotators having adopted this rendering in their version of Fa-hian, I was led to do the same in my own translation, although I had grave doubts at the time, and tried to explain the character of this birth by the history of the *Fracolin* given by Julien (II. 336). I now find that the Jātaka alluded to by Fa-hian was the *Sāma Jātaka*, of which the book under review gives an account. It is interesting to know that this Jātaka was so familiar to the Buddhists in Ceylon at the time of Fa-hian's visit (circa A.D. 410), as it was undoubtedly to the builders and sculptors at Sānchi, some centuries (perhaps) before.

A third Sūtra in this work deserving notice is the *Ta-shing-see-fa-king*, which is the same as the *Arga Chatushka Nirahara Nama Mahāyāna Sūtra*, a translation of which has been made by M. Léon Feer (*Études Buddhiques*, p. 131). On comparing the Chinese with this version, I find the two agree in the main. There are one or two passages, however, much more distinctly given in the Chinese translation. For example, at the opening of the Sūtra, as translated by M. Léon Feer, there is an obscure passage which he renders "n'ayant tous pour vêtement

* The expression *nīdāvatāra* is a well-known one to signify "jugglery." If the net of Indra be the "curtain of stars"

that enclose the atmosphere (as it were), we do not wonder that the idea of jugglery should be associated with it.

qu'un grand amulette" (Maha varma sannadha); in the Chinese the passage runs thus—'Kai-pi-hin-ku-ta-zse-shai-kuan,' that is, "all of them completely armed with the helmet of their strong religious vows," a passage which, although somewhat obscure, is yet common enough in Buddhist books, denoting the power of the vow made by the Bodhisatwas not to give up their condition till they had accomplished the salvation of men (and others). Another passage, p. 134 (*op. cit.*), is thus given by M. Feer—"Le fils d'un dieu reprit Manjucî en faveur de Brahma qui a les cheveux noués au sommet de la tête, et qui reside parmi les fils des dieux," etc., but in the Chinese version the rendering is "The Deva once more replied, Well said! Ayushmat, the Bodhisatwa ought to be untiring in the work of his religious duties, as in old time was the Brahmarâja Sikhin and his associates," etc. The conduct of Sikhin is frequently alluded to in Buddhist books; he is generally indeed spoken of as one of the old Buddhas, but his exact religious conduct is the theme for constant laudation in the *Abhinishkramana Sûtra*. There are several discrepancies between the Chinese text and the translation from the Thibetan, which I cannot enter into at any length; the following will serve as examples:—iv. 1: "Meditation," Chinese "Faith," iv. 2: "Sagesse," Chinese "reliance on a virtuous friend," v.: "Production de pensée à laquelle il serait dangereux pour les Bodhisatwas de se confier," Chinese "The Bodhisatwas ought to strive after a heart not capable of the four defilements," vi. 3: "La pensée qui consiste à ne pas espérer en la maturité parfaite," Chinese, "A heart that does not anxiously look for the reward of good actions," ix. 2: "Production d'un pensée pour que ceux qui transgressent," etc., Chinese "Having been wronged by any one, not to remember the wrong done," ix. 3: "En quelques contrées vastes et étendus," etc., Chinese "Not to remit any effort although dwelling in the midst of plenty (five desires)," x. 1: "Quand on est dans une maison," Chinese "When leading a secular life," x. 2: "Amoindrir les qualités de l'agitation," etc., Chinese "To practise the Dhûta rules," xi. 4: "Quand on a lié sa pensée à la promulgation de la loi," etc., Chinese "Out of a glad heart ever to speak well of the

conduct of a master of the law (spiritual master)." xvii. 2: "Le trésor caché de l'énergie," Chinese "The treasure of dialectics, or of logical discussion," xvii. 4: "Le trésor caché de la bénédiction complète en richesses incépaisables," Chinese "The treasure of worshipping or paying reverence to the highest riches, i.e. the Three Gems, Buddha, Dharma, Sangha. [I may observe here, throughout the translation from the Thibetan, the expression "bénédiction complète" (vi. 4, xvi. 4, xvii. 4, xxxiii. 2) corresponds to *hwui-hiang* in the Chinese, which is a phrase employed to denote an act of external worship, or sometimes mental adoration.]

The Chinese version throws some light on the difficult passage xxii. 4: "Ne plus espérer en la transmigration, à cause du désespoir de réussir dans la réalisation parfaite de toutes les qualités," Chinese "Not to resent as a personal injury (with a view to retaliate) because a friend has not been invited with others to partake of charity or hospitality."

There is a Chinese version of the "*Chatur Dharmaka*," according to the Great Vehicle. A translation of this also has been made by M. Léon Feer, from the Thibetan.* The Chinese version dates from the Tang dynasty, and was made by Devakara, a priest of mid-India. It agrees very closely with the Thibetan.

I now proceed to give a list of other Sûtras found in the work under review.

(a) *Fo-shwo-fan-pih-un-sing-king* (Buddha declares the causes which produce birth). This may be the same as the *Nidâna Sûtra*. The scene is laid by the banks of the Nairârjuna river, under the *bodhi* tree; Buddha, lost in contemplation, dwells upon the falsity of all sources of joy and sorrow in the world. On this Mahâ Brahma, lord of the *Sa-va* world, suddenly leaves the heavens and appears before Buddha. Buddha recounts to him the causes of existence (*Nidânas*); these are the same as those commonly found in Buddhist books, beginning with ignorance (*avidya*) and ending with old age, disease, and death. Whereupon Mahâ Brahma worships at the feet of Buddha and departs.

(b) *Fo-shwo-ta-sing-i-king* (Buddha relates the great and secret principles [truth] of birth). The scene of this sermon is the village of Kuru.

* *Op. cit.* p. 68.

Ananda having been troubled with thoughts respecting the origin of life, resolves to go to Buddha and request an explanation. Having arrived and saluted the All-Wise, he spake thus:—"World-adored, as I dwelt alone and revolved in my mind throughout the night the causes of life and death, I was greatly troubled. Would that you would deign to solve my doubts and explain my difficulties." On this Buddha proceeds to show how the perpetual recurrence of birth and death, and all the phenomena of life, result from ignorance of the causes of these things. Thus old age and death result from birth; destroy the seed of birth and there can be no old age or death (and so throughout the sermon).

(c) *Fo-shwo-u-kwo-king* (Buddha recites the history of U-Kwo) (*defend-country*). This Sûtra recounts how Buddha, when residing at Kuru, departed on a round of visits for the purpose of preaching. Having come to the village of To-lo (Tara?) he was requested by a young Brâhman called U-Kwo to admit him into his society as a novice. Buddha inquired if he had his parents' permission. On being told he had not, Buddha declined to receive him. On this U-Kwo departs to his home, and after a great deal of entreaty he persuades his parents to permit him to become a Bhikshu. This having been accomplished, U-Kwo after a time returns to his native village, and whilst there, is the means of converting the king of Kuru by his teaching. On this the king becomes a Upasaka.

(d) *Fo-shwo-wou-shang-king* (Buddha preaches on impermanency—*anitya*). This sermon was delivered at Srâvasti, in the Jetavana; Buddha declares in it that there are three things in the world that are universally abhorred, viz.—old age, disease, and death. Had it not been for these, Buddha would not have come into the world. He then recites some verses to the same effect. After which, all the audience, filled with delight, worship him and depart.

(e) *Fo-shwo-tong-lai-pien-king* (Buddha declares the changes of the future). This Sûtra was delivered at Srâvasti, in the Jetavana, in the presence of 500 Bhikshus, and all the Bodhisatwas. Buddha describes the way in which religion (the law) will be destroyed by the neglect of first principles—morality, submission, self-discipline, and so on. He tells them that

there will be jealousies and divisions amongst his followers after his own departure, and warns them against the ruin which will result.

(f) *Shi-shen-nick-foon-king* (The Sûtra which relates to virtuous principles or a virtuous Karma). This Sûtra was delivered in the palace of Sâgara, a Nâgarâja, in the presence of 800 Great Bhikshus, and 23,000 Bodhisatwas Mahâsatwas; Buddha declares that all the differences which exist in life, and comparative conditions of happiness, result from the previous conduct of the persons concerned. He then lays down ten virtuous principles, by acting on which there must result consequent perfection and supreme wisdom (*bodhi*). The ten virtues are purely moral and personal, relating to benevolence, love of men, self-denial, energy, and watchfulness against error.

(g) *Fo-shwo-fa-yin-king* (Buddha declares what is the seal of the law). This sermon was delivered at Srâvasti, before all the Bhikshus. In it Buddha declares that the secret, or the seal, of the law, is to perceive the unreality of all phenomenal existence, and, by a conviction of this, to arrive at deliverance. [Deliverance is spoken of as threefold, and is thus denoted, 三.]

(h) *Pa-sa-aiing-ta-king* (The Sûtra of the ground of the birth of the Bodhisatwa). This Sûtra was delivered at Kapilavastu, under a *nyagrodha* tree, in the presence of 500 Bhikshus. A young nobleman, called Chama-h, comes to Buddha, and begs him to explain the nature of a Bodhisatwa's conduct. On this Buddha lays it down that the fundamental principle of a Bodhisatwa's character is perfect patience and forbearance, and this patience exhibits itself under four aspects. (1) When reviled, the Bodhisatwa reviles not again. (2) When smitten, he receives the blow without resentment. (3) When treated with anger and passion, he returns love and good-will. (4) When threatened with death, he bears no malice. Buddha then recites some verses (*geyas*) to the same effect. Again, he says there are four things that distinguish every Bodhisatwa. (1) He loves the scriptures, and the way of salvation practised by the Bodhisatwas; with his utmost mind he defends the cause of religion, and desires to instruct men therein. (2) He removes himself from the company of all females, and will have no business with them. (3) He ever loves to bestow charity on Shâman and Brahmâchâri. (4) He avoids over-sleep,

lest his heart should become indisposed to religion. Buddha then recites some verses to the same effect. On this, Chamaḥ removes from his neck a beautiful string of pearls and precious stones, and offers them to Buddha. Buddha, by his spiritual power, causes them to ascend into the air, and form a canopy over his head. And now, from each precious stone, there appears as it were a man, to the number of 500, each wearing a similar necklace. On this, Chamaḥ asks whence these persons came—to which Buddha replies, They come from nowhere; they are unreal and apparitional only, as a figure in a glass, or the reflection in a lake: and such is the nature of all phenomena, they are unreal, projected on the surface of the one reality, Supreme Wisdom (*Bodhi*). Such is the belief of the Son of Buddha, *i.e.* Bodhisatwa. On hearing this, Chamaḥ, the four kinds of disciples, and all the Nāgas, rejoice and accept it.

(i) *Fo-shwo-chaen-yeon-king* (Buddha delivers the Sūtra which relates to the revelation of existence). This Sūtra was delivered in the Kalandavenuvana near Rājagṛha, in the presence of 1250 disciples and innumerable Bodhisatwas. Bimbāsara Rāja having approached the place where Buddha was seated, saluted him and stood on one side. On this Buddha addressed him thus, "Mahārāja, suppose a man in a dream beheld a lovely maiden, bedecked with jewels; and suppose he dreamt of joys and pleasures partaken with her, would there be any solid truth in such fancied enjoyments?" "No," answered the Rāja, "for it would be only a dream." "And if a man were, nevertheless, to hold the fancy that there was such a real maiden as he had seen in his sleep (or that the maiden were a real one), would this be a mark of wisdom?" "No," answered the king, "for that dream-thought had no substance and was utterly vain." "Such," continued the Buddha, "is the nature of the teaching of the heretical doctors of religion. They use words to describe things which exist not. They receive certain impressions from without, and then they lay hold of these vain impressions and call them realities. They are thus bound by their own fictions, and, being bound, they become subject to all the evil consequences of their own inventions, *viz.*—covetous desire, anger, doubt (*raga, moha, trishna*), and perpetual cycles of birth and death. By giving up such imaginary names

and laying hold of one reality, a man escapes these consequences and is set free."

(j) *Ta-fung-tung-si-con-to-lo-yeag-king*. This is another translation of the previous work; the title is a singular one, and may be translated thus—The *Mahā-cāipulya-Sūtra-vājo-Sūtra*.

(k) *Shen-king-fa-sung-king* (The Sūtra which relates to the thoughts present to those who practise Dhyāna). Delivered at Srāvastī, in the Jetavana; Buddha spoke thus to the Bhikkhus: "If a man, in the snapping of a finger, can realize in his mind the thought of death, and remember perfectly that all which exists must die, this is no small progress to have made—this is not the hesitation of the foolish, or the charity of the Arab (*sik kwō gin*). How much more if he can grasp in a moment the thought of the sorrow, the impermanency, the vanity, the folly, etc., of earthly things—how much more has such a man advanced in the power of Dhyāna."

(l) *Sao-kwei-wu-kiai-see-sin-im-li-kung-tih-king* (The Sūtra that describes the great merit attaching to the three refuges—*tisaraśua*, the five moral rules, a loving heart, and rejecting the evil). Delivered at Srāvastī, in the Jetavana, for the sake of Aniruddha; Buddha speaks of a rich Brāhman, called Virama, and explains that, though he gave away all his wealth in charity, his merit would not be nearly so great as one who professed belief in Buddha, Dharma, and Saṅgha, and undertook to observe the five rules of a disciple.

(m) *Fo-shwo-li-yeon-lan-liang-kung-tih-king* (Buddha delivers a discourse concerning the supreme source of merit). This sermon is directed to show the infinitely superior character of merit resulting from a profession of belief in the three gems to all others.

(n) *Li-hu-hwei-pu-suh-sho-man-li-fo-fa-king* (Questions asked by a Bodhisatwa, called *Li-hu-hwei*, as to the right way of paying worship to Buddha). This Sūtra was delivered at Srāvastī, in the Jetavana. The interlocutor is the Bodhisatwa named in the title. He asks Buddha to explain the right method of worship. On this Buddha tells him that he should, with all his heart, pay adoration to all the Buddhas of the ten quarters, and afterwards prostrate himself on his knees, hands, and head to Buddha himself, beseeching him to bring about the salvation of all men, and cause an end to be put to

all heretical teaching. He then proceeds to direct him to worship each of the Buddhas of the different regions of space, beginning with Akshobya of the eastern region, down to Vairojana, who is placed in the nadir.

(o) *Fo-shuo-ti-shing-pih-fuh-siang-king* (Buddha declares what are the hundred marks of merit belonging to the Great Vehicle). This Sûtra was delivered at Srāvastī, in a palace called Po-Min. The interlocutor is Manjuśrī. In it is given the names of the 80 inferior signs and the 32 greater signs on Buddha's person, also 80 symbols or figures found on the soles of his feet.

(p) *Man-chen-see-li-man-po-ti-king* (Manjuśrī inquires as to the character of Bodhi). This Sûtra was delivered in Magadha, on Mount Gaya, in the presence of all the Bhikshus, and those Brāhmaṇas who had been converted by Buddha; the subject of it is the nature of that condition of mind called the "heart of Bodhi" (*esprit de Bodhi*).

(q) *Wou-tsun-hwei-pou-sah-king* (The Sûtra of Akchyamati Bodhisatwa). This Sûtra was delivered at Rājagriha, on Mount Gridrakuta, in the presence of 1250 Bhikshus. The interlocutor is Akchyamati, who inquires of Buddha the nature of the heart of Bodhi (as in the previous Sûtra).

(r) *Tu-shing-sze-fa-king* (The Sûtra of the four rules of the Great Vehicle). This is the same as the *Mahāyāna-chaturdharmaka Sûtra*. It was delivered at Srāvastī, in the garden of Jeta (and has already been referred to).

(s) *Fo-shuo-ta-shing-sze-fa-king* (Buddha declares the four laws of the Great Vehicle). This Sûtra has already been referred to.

(t) *Fo-shuo-pou-sa-sheou-hing-sze-fa-king*. Another translation of the above.

(u) *Fo-shuo-tsing-nich-chaung-king* (Buddha narrates the obstacles in the way of a pure karma). This Sûtra was delivered when Buddha was dwelling at Vaisali, in the garden of the *amra* trees, in the presence of 500 Bhikshus and 32,000 Bodhisatwas Mahāsattvas. It relates to a conversation between a courtesan and a Bodhisatwa called Vimalanirbhāsa (*wou-lou-kuong*). The former, having used her magic arts, prevails over the Bodhisatwa. After this, being seized with intense remorse, he comes to Buddha; the latter comforts him by an assurance that all such things are as a shadow

and a dream, on which the Bodhisatwa is reassured. Manjuśrī then enters into a discussion with Buddha relating to the character of the Great Vehicle.

(v) *Tehing-u-ta-shing-kuang-tih-king* (Buddha praises the superior excellency of the Great Vehicle). In this Sûtra Buddha describes the superiority of the Heart of Bodhi, and from that proceeds to define the infinite virtue of the Great Vehicle. (This Sûtra was translated from Sanskrit by Hiwen Tsang.)

(w) *Ta-shing-fang-kuang-taung-chi-king* (The Sûtra which describes the nature of the Dharani, used in the Yoga system of the Great Vehicle). This Sûtra was delivered at Rājagriha, on the Gridrakuta mountain, in the presence of 62,000 Great Bhikshus. It contains certain Dharani.

(x) *Wou-shang-i-king* (The Sûtra of the highest reliance). This Sûtra, which is in two parts, contains an account of the relative merit of various actions. It was delivered in the Kalandarcuvana, before 1250 Bhikshus and various Bodhisattvas.

(y) *Fo-shuo-lo-nou-yin-king* (The Sûtra in which Buddha describes the conduct of an aged woman). This Sûtra was delivered by Buddha at a place called Lo-Yin (musical sound), before 800 Bhikshus and 10,000 Bodhisattvas. He describes the conduct of an aged woman who desired to offer him a religious gift. Having only two small coins (mites) she purchased with them a little oil; taking this to a sacred place, she used it in a lamp, to burn for his honour. The lights of all the Brāhmaṇas were extinguished, and hers alone burnt incessantly.

(z) *Fo-shuo-chen-tsun-king* (Buddha relates the history of Sāma). This is the *Sāma Jātaka* referred to before.

(aa) *Tin-wong-tai-tsen-Pi-Lo-King* (The Sûtra of Pi-Lo, the eldest son of a heavenly king—(Devarāja). This Sûtra gives an account of Devarāja-kumara-Pi-Lo's visit to Buddha, during which he recites the history of the Great Brāhmaṇ, which is identical with the Avadāna translated by Stas. Julien, called "*Le roi et le grand taureau*" (*Les Avadānas*, tome I, No. 1).

(bb) *Fo-shuo-O-cho-shai-wong-shau-ku-king* (The Sûtra of Ajatasatru's assurance). This Sûtra was delivered at Rājagriha, on the top of the mountain Gridrakuta, and contains an account of Ajatasatru's visit to Buddha, and

the assurance that he would hereafter become a Chakravartti Rāja.

(cc) *Fo-shuo-tai-tsu-Muh-pih-king* (Buddha declares the history of Prince Muh-pih). This Sūtra was delivered at Srāvastī, in the Jetavana. Buddha recounts the history of the prince Muh-pih, the son of Varanirāja. He was a beautiful child, but unable to speak; having consulted the astrologers, they resolved to put him to death by burying him alive; when on the point of being thus sacrificed, he opened his mouth and spake: he declared that, owing to rash words in a former birth, he had suffered punishment in hell. He had resolved, therefore, to remain silent, rather than risk a like punishment. (This Sūtra is one of the earliest translated into Chinese, A.D. 100.)

(dd) *Fo-shuo-'ug-wang-king* (Buddha declares the history of the five kings). There were once five kings, one of whom was wise, the other four were foolish. The wise king wishing to convert the others, asked them their several ideas of happiness. The first said, "Nothing would delight me more than during the spring-time to wander through gardens and parks, to see the flowers and watch the fountains. This would be pleasure." The second said, "Nothing would delight me more than as a king to mount my royal horses, to dwell in a lordly court, and ever to be surrounded by my faithful subjects paying me reverence." The third said, "Nothing would delight me more than the joys of wedded life surrounded by my children, beautiful and full of grace, ever desiring to give me happiness." The fourth said, "Nothing would delight me more than to dwell ever with my parents, in company with my brothers and sisters, with the daintiest food, clothed in the costliest raiment, and enjoying the indulgences of sense." The four having thus spoken, the wise king replied, "All these things are vain and perishable; for my part, I would desire nothing so much as a condition that admits of neither birth nor death, joy nor sorrow, nor any other extreme;" on which the others replied, "And where shall we find a teacher who will explain how this condition may be reached?" Whereupon the wise king conducted them to the presence of Buddha, at the Jetavana Vihāra. Buddha then enters on a discourse in which he describes the eight kinds of sorrow which are incident to all condi-

tions of life. In the end the four kings are converted.

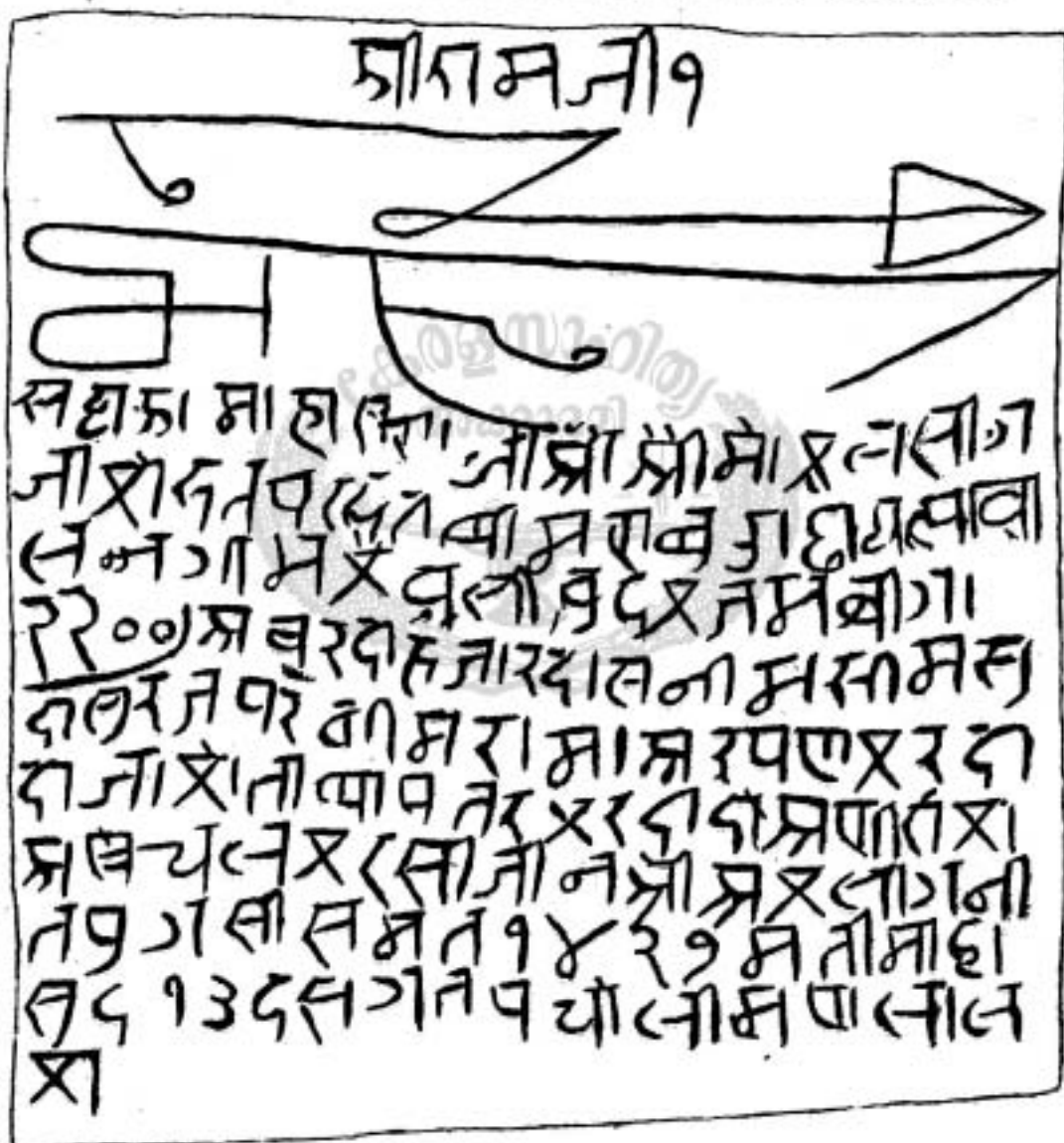
(ee) *Fo-shuo-kin-cho-'ug-fuh-ti-king* (Buddha declares the five conditions of happiness belonging to the virtuous man). This Sūtra was also delivered at Srāvastī, in the Jetavana Vihāra. Buddha declares that the virtuous man is in this life rewarded in five ways,—first, with long life; second, with great wealth; third, with graceful form; fourth, with honour and renown; fifth, with much wisdom. He then proceeds to explain the character of the truly virtuous man.

(ff) *Fo-shuo-U-lan-pwan-king* (Buddha declares the *Avalambana Sūtra*). This Sūtra was delivered at Srāvastī, in the Jetavana Vihāra. Mahā Mugaḷaṇ, by the exercise of his spiritual power, beholds his mother suffering as a Preta from starvation; on proceeding to her side and offering her food, she was unable to receive it, as it was changed into burning ashes in her hand. On this he went, with many tears, to Buddha, and declared his great sorrow. Whereupon Buddha ordains a service to be held on the 15th day of the 7th month, for the purpose of providing food for all those suffering torments of hunger as Pretas. Mugaḷaṇ, with great joy, performs this service, and so provides his mother with food.

(gg) *Ta-fung-kwang-fuh-hwa-yen-king-sieou-sse-fun* (The charity section of the *Mahāvīpulyāvatamsaka Sūtra*). This Sūtra was delivered at Rājagṛīha, on the Vulture-peak mountain. It is a part of one of the most popular Sūtras known in China, viz. the *Fa-yen-king*.

(hh) *Fo-shuo-yin-ua-sang-hu-king* (Buddha narrates the history of Saṅgharāḥshita). This indeed is a translation of the *Saṅgha Rāḥshita Avadāna*, known to us through the version given by Bournouf. (*Introd. to Ind. Bud.* p. 313, ff.) The Chinese translation agrees in the main with this version. It opens with an account of the Nāga, which assumed a human form and became a Bhikṣu; having gone to sleep, accidentally, his true nature was discovered; after having been instructed in the law, he was dismissed to his Dragon Palace by Buddha; here he was visited by Saṅgha Rāḥshita, and further instructed in the sacred books. The narrative then proceeds with the adventures of Saṅgha Rāḥshita after having been dismissed from the Dragon Palace. (The details are nearly the same as those given by Bournouf.)

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J. Burgess fecit.

5. I shall now proceed to translate a short Sûtra called "Buddha's dying instruction" (*Po-wei-kian-king*). The interest of this work is derived from the fact that it is generally bound up in China with the *Sûtra of Forty-Two Sections*, the first Buddhist work translated into Chinese. It will be seen that it is of a primitive type, and deals entirely with moral questions. It also speaks of the *Pratimoksha*, not as that work is known to us, but as certain rules of a simple prohibitive character, affecting the life of the disciple. It would appear from this that the bulky work now known as the *Pratimoksha* is a later compilation, drawn up in fact after the introduction of conventual life among the followers of Buddha.

"The Sûtra of Buddha's dying instruction," translated by Royal Command, by Kumârajîva, a Doctor of the Three Pitakas, in the reign of Yaou (Hing), Prince of T'sin* [397 to 415 A.D.].

"Śākyamuni Buddha, when he first began to preach, converted Ajnata Kāundîya (*O-jo-kiao-tek-in-jū*); so, on the occasion of his last discourse, he converted S ubhâdra. Having thus done all that was appointed him to do, he reclined between two *sālā* trees, about to enter *nirvāṇa*. It was now in the middle of the night, perfectly quiet and still; on this occasion, for the sake of his disciples, he delivered a brief summary of his law.

"Bhikshus, after my death, regard, I pray you, with much reverence, the book of the *Pratimoksha* as a light shining in the darkness, or a precious pearl found by a poor man. Let this book be your teacher and guide, even as I should be, if I remained in the world. Keep the pure rules of discipline, viz. these—not to enter on any business engagements, whether buying or selling, or exchanging; to avoid all purchase of land or houses; all rearing of cattle, or dealing in servants or slaves, or any living thing; to put away all money, property, or jewels—as a man would avoid a burning pit. Not to cut down or destroy trees or shrubs; not to cultivate land, or dig the earth; not to engage in the decoction of medicines; not to practise divination, or casting lucky or unlucky days; not to study the stars or the movements of constellations; not to predict times of plenty or scarcity; not to enter on calculations of any

sort; all these things are forbidden. Keep the body temperate in all things, and the vital functions in quiet subjection. Have nothing to do with worldly engagements, either in seeking places of authority, or pronouncing incantations, or courting the rich, or planning for the welfare of your worldly relatives. But, by self-control and right modes of thought, aim at emancipation; conceal none of your faults, but confess them before the congregation; be moderate and contented with the food, clothing, medicines, and bedding allowed you [*Jal. I. 152*], and be cautious against hoarding up that which is allowed. These are the rules of discipline, the observance of which is the true source of emancipation, and hence they are called 'The Rules of the *Pratimoksha*.' Keep then these precepts in their purity, O Bhikshus! Let there be no careless negligence in this matter; the man who carefully observes them shall have power to fulfil all the duties of religion; the man who disregards them shall experience none of the rewards which a virtuous life is able to afford. And for this reason it is I bid you remember that the knowledge and practice of these rules is the first and chief necessity for attaining religious merit and final peace.

"If, Bhikshus, ye have attended to this point, and have observed the precepts religiously, then proceed to keep the five organs of sense in due check, not permitting them a loose rein, or to engage in the pursuit of pleasure (the five pleasures); just as a shepherd with his crook prevents the cattle from straying into the neighbouring pastures. But if you restrain not your senses, but permit them the indulgence of the five pleasures, and put no check upon them, then, as a vicious horse unchecked by the bridle hurries on and throws its rider into the ditch, so shall it be with you; your senses, getting the mastery of you, shall eventually hurry you on to the place of torment, where you shall endure untold misery for the period of an age (*æonum*), without any mode of escape or deliverance. The wise man, therefore, restrains his senses and permits them not free indulgence—he keeps them fast bound, as robbers are held in bonds, and doing so he soon feels their power to hurt utterly destroyed. The heart (*sin*) is lord of these senses; govern, therefore, your heart well; watch well the heart, for it is like a noxious

* T'sin, a feudal state occupying the region of the rivers Wei and King. See for the date *Jal. I. p. 322*.

snake, a wild beast, a cruel robber, a great fire, and worse even than these. It may be compared to a man who is holding in his hand a vessel full of honey, and as he goes on his way his eyes are so bent in gazing on the sweet treasure in his dish, that he sees not the dreadful chasm in his way, down which he falls. It is like a mad elephant unchecked by the pointed crook—or like the ape which is allowed to escape into the tree, quickly it leaps from bough to bough, difficult to re-capture and chain up once more. Restrain, therefore, and keep in complete subjection your heart; let it not get the mastery; persevere in this, O Bhikshus, and all shall be well.

“With respect to food and drink, whether you have received common or dainty food, let it not excite in you either undue gratification or regret; and the same with clothing and medicinal preparations—take sufficient and be satisfied; even as the butterfly sips the honey of the flower and departs, so do ye, O Bhikshus, seek not more than is necessary: be satisfied with what is given to you, just as the wise man calculates the strength of the ox he uses, and gives it as much food as is necessary for it.

“Be careful, O Bhikshus, to waste no time, but earnestly to persevere in acquiring a knowledge of the true law. On the first and last nights of the month continue in the repetition of the sacred books without cessation. It is sloth and love of sleep that causes a whole life to be thrown away and lost. Think of the fire that shall consume the world, and early seek deliverance from it, and give not way to sleep. A man who indulges in immoderate sleep can have no inward satisfaction or self-respect; there is always a snake of dissatisfaction coiled up in his breast: whereas he who denies himself this indulgence is like the man who rises early, and, sweeping out his house, expels all that is hurtful, and so has continual safety and peace. Above all things, let modesty govern every thought and every word of your daily life—a man without modesty is in no way different from the brute beast.

“Bhikshus, if a man should do you such injury as to chop your body in pieces limb by limb, yet you ought to keep your heart in perfect control; no anger or resentment should affect you, nor a word of reproach escape your lips; for if you once give way to a bitter thought,

you have erred from the right way, and all religious merit is lost. Patience is a virtue (*this is the literal translation of the passage ‘Jin che wei tik’*); to keep the rules of moral restraint without wavering, to exercise patience without tiring, this is the characteristic of the great man. If a man, because he does not enjoy everything as he would wish, loses patience, he is like a man who will not enter on the path of salvation because he cannot immediately quaff the sweet dew (*i.e.* attain immortality). ”

The text then proceeds to speak of the advantage of moderation in all indulgences (pleasures), the happiness of a solitary life; “for they who live in mixed society are like the birds that congregate together in a tree, always afraid of the traps of the fowler; or like the old elephant in the mud unable to extricate himself. Continual perseverance is like a little fire that keeps on burning, but he who tires in the practice of religion is like a fire that goes out. Such is perseverance (*virya*).

“You ought, also, never to forget self-examination and reflection; if you neglect this, then all progress is at an end—in the practice of this you put on, as it were, a helmet of defence, so that no sword can hurt you, and no enemy get the advantage over you (*vin*, *i.e.* *śrāddha*). You ought to keep your mind fixed in contemplation (*dhyāna*)—by perseverance this power of fixed contemplation is always ready, even as water kept in the house is always ready for laying the dust out of doors. And so he who continues in the practice of *dhyāna* shall undoubtedly attain wisdom (*prajñā*); and this is the Deliverance spoken of in my law. And true wisdom is this: to cross the sea of old age, disease, and death in a strong and trustworthy boat. It is a lamp shining in darkness, a medicine for all diseases, a hatchet to cut down the tree of sorrow, and for this reason you ought to aim above all things to attain this wisdom, and so bring to yourself lasting benefit. A man who has this wisdom is perfectly illuminated, and needs no other eyes.

“Again, Bhikshus, if you would obtain final release, you must put away from you all the foolish books (trifling discourses) met with in the world. Think only on the words I have given you, whether in the mountain pass or the depth of the valley, whether beneath the tree or in the solitary cell; think of the scriptures

(law), and forget them not for a moment, persevere in studying them alone; I, as the good physician, knowing the disease which affects you, give this as a medicine fit for the case: without this you die. Or, like the guide who knows the way, I direct you where to go and what path to take: without a guide you perish. And now, if you have any doubts respecting the four great truths which lie at the bottom of my teaching, ask me, O Bhikshus, and explain your doubts; for while you doubt there can be no fixity."

This exhortation the world-honoured one repeated three times, but neither of the Bhikshus propounded any question, for so it was they had no doubts.

Then Aniruddha, reading the hearts of the congregation, addressed Buddha, and said: "World-honoured, the moon may scatter heat and the sun cause cold—but there can be no difference as to the truth and meaning of the four great doctrines which Buddha has placed at the bottom of his system. There is the great truth of 'sorrow' (*dukkha*). Sorrow can never co-exist with joy, or produce it. 'Concourse' (the expression 'concourse,' generally translated 'accumulation,' evidently refers to the 'rush' or 'concourse' of thoughts and events, experiences and anxieties, as the true cause of sorrow), this is the true cause (of sorrow); besides this there is no other. The 'destruction of sorrow' is just the destruction of cause, 'no cause, no fruit,' and 'the way' is this very way by which the cause may be destroyed, and this is the 'true way,' and there is no other. World-honoured one, the Bhikshus are firmly fixed in these doctrines: there is not the shadow of a doubt, there is no question or difference of opinion in the congregation respecting them. The only thought which affects the congregation is one of grief that the world-honoured one should be about to depart and enter Nirvāṇa, just as we have begun to enter on the practice of this law and understand its meaning; just as in the night a flash of lightning lights up the way for the weary traveller and then is gone, and he left to wander in the dark; this is the only thought which weighs on the mind of the congregation."

Notwithstanding the assurance of Aniruddha, the world-honoured one wishing that every member of the congregation should be

strong in his belief, and attain perfect assurance, again out of his compassion addressed them, and said:—

"Bhikshus, lament not at my departure, nor feel any regret; for if I remained in the world through the *Kalpa* (i.e. to the end of the world), then what would become of the church (assembly)? it must perish without accomplishing its end! and the end is this: 'by personal profit to profit others.' My law is perfectly sufficient for this end. If I were to continue in the world, it would be for no good; those who were to be saved are saved, whether gods or men; those who are not saved shall be saved, by the seeds of truth I have sown. From henceforth all my disciples practising their various duties shall prove that my true body, the Body of the Law (*dharma-kaya*), is everlasting and imperishable.

"Be assured of this, the world is transitory; dismiss your sorrow, and seek deliverance; by the light of wisdom destroy the gloom of all your doubts. The world is fast bound in fetters and oppressed with affliction; I now give it deliverance, as a physician who brings heavenly medicine. Put away every sin and all wickedness; remember that your 'body' is but a word coined to signify that which does not really exist—ford across the sea of death, old age, and disease—Who is the wise man that does not rejoice in the destruction of these, as one rejoices when he slays the enemy who would rob him?

"Bhikshus, keep your mind on this; all other things change, this changes not. No more shall I speak to you. I desire to depart. I desire Nirvāṇa. This is my last exhortation."

6. Another Sūtra worthy of notice is the *Chong-Lun*, or *Prāṇa-mūl-sūtra-tika*, by Nagārjuna. I shall proceed to give the translation of the 25th section of this work on Nirvāṇa.

(1) If all things are unreal,

Then how is it possible to remove

From that which does not exist

Something which being removed leaves
Nirvāṇa?

This section argues that if all things are alike empty and unreal, then there is no such thing as birth and death; consequently there can be no removal of sorrow, and the destruction of the five elements of existence (limited existence),

by removal of which we arrive at Nirvāṇa (what is called Nirvāṇa).

- (2) But if all things are real,
Then how can we remove
Birth and death, real existence,
And so arrive at Nirvāṇa?

This section argues that we cannot destroy that which has in itself real existence, and therefore, if all things have this real being, we cannot remove birth and death, and so arrive at Nirvāṇa; therefore, neither by the theory of *Bhava*, nor by the theory of *Sunyata* (emptiness), can we arrive at the just idea of Nirvāṇa.

- (3) That which is not striven for, or "obtained,"

That which is not "for a time" or "eternal,"
That which is not born, nor dies,
This is that which is called Nirvāṇa.

"Not to be striven for," that is, in the way of religious action (*achārya*), and its result (fruit). "Not obtained" (or "arrived at"), that is, because there is no place or point at which to arrive. "Not for a time" (or not by way of interruption [*per saltum*]); for the five skandhas having been from the time of complete enlightenment proved to be unreal, and not part of true existence, then on entering final nirvāṇa (*anupadisesha nirvāṇa*)—What is there that breaks or interrupts the character of previous existence? "Not for ever," or "everlasting," for if there were something to be obtained that admitted of distinctions whilst in the possession of it, then we might speak of an *eternal nirvāṇa*; but as in the condition of silent extinction (nirvāṇa) there can be no properties to distinguish, how can we speak of it as "everlasting?" And so with reference to Birth and Death. Now that which is so characterized is what we call *Nirvāṇa*.

"Again, there is a sūtra which says, *Nirvāṇa* is the opposite of 'Being' and 'not Being'; it is the opposite of these two combined; it is the opposite of the absence of 'Being' and the absence of 'not Being.' So, in short, that which admits of no conditions such as are attached to limited existence, that is Nirvāṇa."

- (4) Nirvāṇa cannot be called "*Bhava*;"

For if so, then it admits of old age and death,
In fact, both "being" and "not being" are
phenomena,

And therefore are capable of being deprived
of characteristics.

This means that as all things which the eye beholds are seen to begin and to end, and this is what the śloka calls "Life" and "Death" (or birth and death). Now if Nirvāṇa is like this, then it would be possible to speak of removing these things and so arriving at something fixed—but here is a plain contradiction of terms—for Nirvāṇa is supposed to be that which is fixed and unchangeable.

- (5) If Nirvāṇa is *Bhava* (existent),

Then it is *personal*;

But, in fact, that which cannot be individualized

Is spoken of as *not personal*.

This means that as all phenomenal existence comes from cause and consequent production, therefore all such things are rightly called "personal."

- (6) If Nirvāṇa be *Bhava*,

Then it cannot be called "without sensation" (*anavedana*);

For non-Being comes not from sensation,

And by this obtains its distinct name.

This means that as the sūtras describe Nirvāṇa as being "without sensation" (*anavedana*), it cannot be *Bhava*; for then *abhava* would come from sensation. But now it will be asked if Nirvāṇa is not *Bhava*, then that which is "not *Bhava*" (*abhava*), surely then is Nirvāṇa. To this we reply—

- (7) If Nirvāṇa be not *Bhava*,

Much less is it nothing (*abhava*);

For if there be no room for "Being,"

What place can there be for "not Being."

This means that "not Being" is the opposite of "Being." If, then, "Being" be not admissible, how can we speak of "not Being?" (its opposite).

- (8) If, again, Nirvāṇa is Nothing,

How is it called "without sensation" (*anavedana*)?

For it would be wonderful indeed if everything not capable of sensation

Were forthwith spoken of as Nothing.

If, then, Nirvāṇa be neither "Being" nor "non-Being," what is it?

- (9) By participation in cause and effect

Comes the wheel of continual existence,

By non-participation in cause and effect

Comes Nirvāṇa.

As by knowing a thing to be straight we also know that which is crooked, so by the know-

ledge of the elements of finite existence comes the knowledge of continual life and death. Do away with those, and you do also away with the other.

- (10) As Buddha says in the Sūtra,
Separate "Being," separate "not Being,"
This is Nirvāṇa,
The opposite of "Being," the opposite
of "not Being."

"Being" here alludes to the three worlds of finite existence. The absence of these three worlds is "not Being." Get rid of both these ideas, this is Nirvāṇa. But it may now be asked, if Nirvāṇa is not "Being" and if it is not "absence of Being"—then perhaps it is the intermixture of the two.

- (11) If it is said that "Being" and "not Being,"
By union, produce Nirvāṇa,
The two are then one;
But this is impossible.

Two unlike things cannot be joined so as to produce one different from either.

- (12) If it is said "Being" and "not Being,"
United, make Nirvāṇa,
Then Nirvāṇa is not "without sensation,"
For these two things involve sensation.

- (13) If it is said that "Being" and "not Being,"
United, produce Nirvāṇa,
Then Nirvāṇa is not Impersonal;
For these two things are Personal.

- (14) "Being" and "not Being," joined in one,
How can this be Nirvāṇa?
These two things have nothing in common.
Can Darkness and Light be joined?

- (15) If the opposite of "Being" and "not Being"

Is Nirvāṇa,

These opposites—

How are they distinguished?

- (16) If they are distinguished,
And so, by union, become Nirvāṇa,
Then that which completes the idea of
"Being" and "not Being,"
Also completes the idea of the opposite of
both.

- (17) Tathagata, after his departure,
Says nothing of "Being" and "not Being:"
He says not that his "Being" is not, or
the opposite of this.
Tathagata says nothing of these things or
their opposites.

The question of Nirvāṇa sums itself up in this, that whether past, or present, or to come, it is one and the same condition of non-sensational existence. Tathagata is ever the same: if he be removed, then Nirvāṇa itself becomes a mere fancy.

The conclusion of the whole matter is that Nirvāṇa is identical with the nature of Tathagata, without bounds, and without place or time.

From this section of the *Chong-lau* we can understand the character of the entire work. It advocates the theory that the true condition of Being (*Nirvāṇa*), or the nature of Tathagata, is to be found in the conciliation of differences. Neither Eternal nor non-Eternal, personal nor impersonal—but above and beyond all such verbal limitations.

EXTRACTS FROM TARANATHA'S HISTORY OF BUDDHISM IN INDIA.

BY W. L. HEELEY, B.C.S.

The existence and importance of Tāranātha's work were first made known to Western students by Vassiliev, who used it freely in his work on Buddhism; * and the book itself was translated by Schiefner from the Tibetan, and published at St. Petersburg in 1869: but it seems to me by no means to have attracted the attention it deserves, and I have no doubt that the extracts which I have now translated from Schiefner's German will interest many readers, and serve to lead them to the book it-

self. Tāranātha steadily cites his authorities and shows an historical feeling very alien to the Oriental world generally; and his facts have therefore considerable historical weight. His lists of kings are full and contain many names not otherwise known. For the period after *Hsuen Tsang* his historical data are particularly valuable, as we are there left very much in the dark by historians, and future writers on medieval India will have the task of comparing his statements with the monumental and numisma-

* Published in Russia in 1857; date of Schiefner's German translation, 1860.

tic evidence on which our knowledge of that period is mainly based.

Tāranātha's real name was Kun-snjing; he was born in 1575, and composed his work in 1608. He was a monk of the Jonang school, which after Tsongkapa's reforms was numbered among the heterodox schools, i.e. those opposed to the prevalent sect of the "Yellow mitres," though at a later period, after Tāranātha's death, it was attached to that sect.

I begin with the last chapter of the book, as perhaps the most generally interesting.

I.—On Buddhist Art.

"In former days human masters, who were endowed with miraculous power, produced astonishing works of art. It is expressly stated in the *Vinaya-dharma* and other works that the wall-paintings, &c. of these masters were such as to deceive by their likeness to the actual things depicted. For some centuries after the departure of the Teacher many such masters flourished. After they had ceased to flourish, many masters appeared who were Gods in human form; these erected the eight wonderful *chaityas* of Magadha,—the Mahābodhi, Manjūśrīdandubhīśvara, &c., and made many other objects. In the time of king Aśoka, Yaksha* artisans erected the *chaityas* of the eight great places, the inner enclosure of Vajrasana, &c. In the time of Nāgārjuna also many works were performed by Nāga artisans. Thus the works of the Gods, Yakshas, and Nāgas for many years deceived men by their reality. When in process of time all this ceased to be, it seemed as if the knowledge of art had vanished from among men. Then for a long course of years appeared many artistic efforts brought to light by the striving of the individual genius, but no fixed school or succession of artists. Later, in the time of king Buddhapaksha, the sculpture and painting of the artist Bimbisāra were specially wonderful and resembled those early works of the Gods; the number of his followers was exceedingly great, and as he was born in Magadha the artists of his school were styled Ma-

dhyadeśa Artists. In the time of king Śīla lived an especially skilful delineator of the gods, born in Mārwar, named Śrīṅgadhara; he left behind him paintings and other masterpieces like those produced by the Yakshas. Those who followed his lead were called the Old Western school. In the time of kings Devapāla and Śrīmanta Dharmapāla lived in Varendra [Northern Bengal] an especially skilful artist, named Dhīmān; his son was Bitpālo; both these produced many works in cast metal, as well as sculptures and paintings which resembled the works of the Nāgas. The father and son gave rise to distinct schools; as the son lived in Bengal, the cast images of gods produced by their followers were called gods of the Eastern style, whatever might be the birthplace of their actual designers. In painting, the followers of the father were called the Eastern school; those of the son, as they were most numerous in Magadha, were called followers of the Madhyadeśa school of painting. So in Nepāl, the earlier schools of art resembled the Old West school, but in the course of time a peculiar Nepālese school formed itself, which in painting and casting resembled rather the Eastern schools; the latest artists have no special character. In Kaśmir too, there were in former times followers of the Old Western school of Madhyadeśa; later on, a certain Hasurāja founded a new school in painting and sculpture, which is now called the Kaśmir school. Wherever Buddhism prevailed, skilful religious artists were found, while wherever the Mlechhas [Mahamadans] ruled, they disappeared; where, again, the Tirthya doctrines [orthodox Hinduism] prevailed, unskilful artists came to the front. Although in Pukam [Burma] and the southern countries the making of images is still going on, no specimens of the works appear to have reached Tibet. In the South three artists have had many followers: Jaya, Parojaya, and Vijaya."

II.—Pāṇini. (From Chapter X.)

"A companion of king Nanda was the Brāhmaṇ Pāṇini, who was born in the west

* In another place Aśoka is described as having subdued India by the aid of an army of Yaksha mercenaries; Vassiliev is inclined to connect the name Yaksha with the Ynoi-choi, and suggests that they were Bactrian Greeks. The author, however, clearly treats the Yakshas as supernatural beings—a race of demigods, in the ordinary sense in which the word is used in the Purāṇas. A good deal may be said for Vassiliev's conjecture, if we bear in mind that Tāranātha also ascribes a special

artistic style to the Nāgas, who were without doubt a particular fraternity in Kaśmir, supposed to be under the special protection of the snake-gods. Works like the temple of Amravati, which shows an obvious Kaśmir influence, were probably ascribed to Nāga architects; and if the Græco-Bactrian school, traces of whose influence are visible in many parts of India, represented the Yaksha art, it remains only to ascertain what works were ascribed to the Devas, and who they were.

in Bhirukavana. When he asked a chiro-mantist whether he possessed the power of acquiring grammatical learning, and the chiro-mantist answered in the negative, he made the suitable lines on his hand with a sharp pair of scissors, and resorted to all the masters of grammatical lore on the earth, pursuing that study with the greatest eagerness; and as he was still discontented, he through perseverance succeeded in summoning his protecting deity to his help. When the deity showed his face and uttered the vowel-sounds *a*, *i*, and *u*, Pāṇini attained a knowledge of all the sounds that are to be found in the three worlds. The Heterodox [Brāhmaṇists] maintain that this deity was Īśvara, but have no special reasons for their belief; the Orthodox [Buddhists] on the contrary assert that it was Avalokiteśvara, and refer to the prediction from the *Manjuśrīnīlataṅtra*: "The Brāhmaṇ's son Pāṇini will undoubtedly, through the perfect insight of a Śrāvaka, according to my prediction, invoke by his conjurations the majesty of the Lord of the world." This Pāṇini composed the grammatical Sūtra called the *Pāṇini-niryākarāṇa*, composed of 2000 ślokas, namely 1000 ślokas on the formation of words, and 1000 of explanation. This is, moreover, the root of all grammars. Before him there were no *Śāstras* on the formation of words reduced to writing, and as no system existed which brought the subject under distinct points of view, individual grammarians, who brought special facts of language into connections of two and two, were esteemed as remarkably learned. Though it is said in Tibet that the *Indravākyākarāṇa* is older, yet, as we shall show below, though it may have penetrated earlier into the Celestial country, in India Pāṇini's grammar was the earliest. And though paṇḍits assert that the *Chandrayākyākarāṇa*, translated into Tibetan, agrees with Pāṇini, and the *Kalāpavyākarāṇa* with the *Indravākyākarāṇa*, it is universally maintained that Pāṇini's grammar, in the copiousness of its explanations and the systematic completeness of its views, is something quite unique."

III.—*Kālidāsa*. (From Chapter XV.)

"Kālidāsa's biography is as follows:—At the time when the Brāhmaṇ Vararuchi was in honour at the court of Bhīmaśūkla, king of Vārāṇasī, the king proposed to give his daughter Vāsantī to Vararuchi to wife.

Vāsantī, however, out of pride, considering herself the more learned of the two, refused to be Vararuchi's servant. On this Vararuchi determined to outwit her, and said to the king 'Invite my learned teacher, who is a hundred-fold cleverer than I, and give your daughter to him.' He saw a cowherd of Magadha, with a handsome figure, sitting on the end of a branch and cutting the lower part of the branch with an axe; judging that this man must be unusually stupid, he had him called and after some days' rubbing and scrubbing, he carefully clothed him in the dress of a Brāhmaṇ Paṇḍit, got him as far as the expression *oṃ svastī*, and told him in case he found himself before the king and his court to throw flowers at the king and say *oṃ svastī*, but if any one else addressed him, by no means to answer. But in carrying this out when the rustic threw the flowers at the king he said *Uśatara*. This the Āchārya (Vararuchi) made out to be a blessing, thus explaining the sense of the four syllables—'Umayā sahito Rudraḥ, Śaṅkarasahito Vishṇuḥ, tātākāśūlapāṇischa rakshantu Śivaḥ sarvadā;' which is, being interpreted, 'May Rudra with Umā, Vishṇu with Śaṅkara, And Śiva holding the sounding trident evermore preserve (you)!' .

"Upon this Vāsantī began to ask him the meaning of different words, and when he gave no answer, Vararuchi asked 'How can you expect my learned teacher to answer a woman's questions?'; and when he had thus turned all their heads, he went away to the south. While the bridegroom was carried in triumph to all the temples, he spoke never a word, till seeing at last on the outer wall of a temple the pictures of various animals and among them that of an ox, he was delighted, and put on the aspect and manners of a cowherd. Then Vāsantī said 'Alas! it is a cowherd!' and saw that she had been played upon. She thought that if he were clever she might teach him the science of language, but on trial she found him very dull of comprehension. She became scornful, and sent her husband every day to gather flowers. In a certain locality of Magadha there was a figure of the goddess Kālī, the work of a divine artist. To this figure he carried every day an abundance of flowers, bowed before it and prayed full of thought. When Vāsantī on one occasion

brought an offering to the goddess, and her husband had gone out at daybreak to pluck flowers, an attendant of hers concealed herself by way of a joke behind the pedestal of the goddess. She was chewing *pāṇa* at the time, and when the cowherd as usual came to pray she handed him a piece of the betel she was chewing, which he took and swallowed, believing that the goddess herself had really given it. There and then he attained an unlimited intellectual power, and became an eminent authority in logic, in grammar, and in poetry. As he happened to hold in the right hand a day-lotus (*padma*) and in the left a night-lotus (*utpala*), Vāsantī asked him which he preferred, the beautiful day-lotus with its thick stalk, or the little night-lotus with its delicate stalk; he replied: 'In my right hand the day-lotus, in my left the night-lotus; whether with coarse or delicate stalk, take which thou wilt, O lotus-eyed!' As the lady now perceived that he had gained intelligence, she held him henceforward in high honour, and as he had shown so much reverence to the goddess Kālī he obtained the name of Kālīdāsa, or the slave of the dark goddess. After this he became the crown-jewel of all poets, and composed the Eight Messengers, the Cloud-Messenger (*Meghadūta*) and the others, the *Kumārasmāhāra*, and the other poetical Śāstras. Both he and Śaṭṭa-varman belonged to the sect of the Heterodox [i.e. non-Buddhists]."

IV.—*Authorities.* (From the conclusion.)

"If any one ask on what authorities this work depends, let him know that although many fragmentary histories of the origin of the (Buddhist) religion, and stories, have been composed in Tibet, I have not met with any complete and consecutive work; I have therefore, with the exception of a few passages, the credibility of which proves their truth, taken nothing from Tibetan sources. As, however, I have seen and heard the comments of several Gurū-Paṇḍitas on a work in two thousand *śloka*s composed by Kṣhemendrabhadra, a Paṇḍita of Magadha, which narrates the history as far as king Rāmapāla, I have taken this as my foundation, and have completed the history by means of two works, namely the *Buddhavarṇana* composed by Paṇḍita Indradatta of a Kṣatriya family, in which all the events up to the four Sena kings are fully recorded in 1200 *śloka*s, and the ancient History of the Succession of Teachers (*āchāryas*) composed by the Brāhmaṇa Paṇḍita Bhaṭṭaḥaṭi. In chronology too I have followed these three works, which agree except in some minor particulars. Their narrations have, as is obvious, a special reference to the rise of religion in the kingdoms of Aparāntaka [India proper], but I have not been able to describe its history in Kāśmīr, Udyāna, [Swat], Tukhāra, Koki [the Indo-Chinese peninsula], and on the different islands, as I have never seen or heard of any books on the subject."

A GRANT OF KING DHRUVASENA I. OF VALABHĪ.

BY J. G. BÜHLEB, Ph.D.

The grant of Dhruvasena I, a transcript and translation of which are given below, was found a few weeks ago by the Kolis at Wallā and came into my hands together with another *śāsana* issued by Dharasena II. Like all documents of the Valabhi kings, it is written on the inner sides of two copper plates, which are joined by copper rings. The plates in question had, when I received them, only one ring left; the second, which probably bore the seal, had been torn off. The size of the plates is eleven inches by eight. Their preservation is tolerably good. The left-hand upper corner of the first plate has, however, been smashed—probably by an unlucky blow of the finder's pickaxe. A piece four inches in length and one inch in

breadth has been broken up into four fragments. Fortunately these have been preserved. The second plate is slightly damaged at the lower end,—it would seem, by the same accident which injured the first plate. This injury is more serious than the other, because it prevents me at least from making out several words. When I received the plates, they were covered in some parts with caked mud, and for the greater part with a thick layer of brilliant verdigris. At the edges the copper is disintegrated. A prolonged immersion in lime-juice removed the dirt and verdigris so far that the letters, with very few exceptions, are plainly recognizable. The published Valabhi *śāsanas* make it possible to determine the value of the characters which have remained

indistinct. The last figure of the date is, however, very troublesome. The letters of this grant have a much more antique appearance than those of

any other Wallâ plate I have seen. The *ṛ* has throughout the old form of the Gīrnār inscriptions, not that resembling the modern Gujarātī letter.

Transcript.

PLATE I.

स्वस्ति जयस्कन्धावारात् खुद्वेदीयग्रामवासकायसभप्रणता-
मिताणां भैलकायामतुल—१—
बलसेपन्नमण्डलाभोगसंसक्तसंप्रहारज्ञातलब्धप्रतापः प्रतापो-
पन्नदानमाना—२—
कर्जोपादिजलागुरागानुरक्तमौलभुवमिजश्रेणीबलावाप्रराज्य-
श्रीः श्रीसेनापतिभटार्कः—३—
तस्य सुतः तच्छरणरजोरुणनतपवित्रीकृतशिराः शिरोवनत-
शतुचूडाम[न]—४—
प्रभाविचुरितपादनखपङ्क्तिदीधितिः दीनानायजनोपजीव्यमा-
नविभवः—५—
परममहेश्वरः श्रीसेनापतिधरसेनः तस्यानुजस्तत्वादाभिप्र-
णामप्रशस्त—६—
तरविमलमौलमणिः मन्वादिप्रणीतविधिविधानधर्मा धर्म-
राज इव विहि—७—
हविनयव्यवस्थापकतिरखिलभुवनमण्डलामोक्षकस्वामिना प-
रमस्था—८—

1. The Virāma under the ninth, and the twelfth akshara, are doubtful.

2 and 3. First ten aksharas half obliterated by the break in the plate. मौलभूत is a mistake for मौलिभूत, repeated in all the grants.

8. Last akshara half obliterated.

मिना स्वयमुपहितराज्याभिषेकमहाविश्राननावतूत्राजश्रीः प-
रम—९—

महेश्वरः श्रीमहाराजद्रोणसिंहः सिंह इव तस्यानुजस्वभुजबल-
परा—१०—

कुमेण परगजपटानीकानामेकविजयी शरणेपिणां शरणम-
वशोऽह—११—

शास्त्रार्थवत्तर्तनां कल्पतरुरिव सुहृत्प्रणयिनां यथाभिलषित-
कामफलो—१२—

पमोगदः परमभागवतः परमभहारकपादानुजज्ञतो महासा-
मन्त—१३—

महाप्रतीहारमहादण्डनायकमहाकार्त्तिकमहाराजश्रीधुव-
सेनः कुशली—१४—

सर्वानेव स्वानुगतकमहत्तरद्रागिचाटभटादीन्समाज्ञा—१५
पयन्त्यस्मिन् वस्तिविदिने यथा मया मातापित्रोः पुण्या—१६—

9. १४ थीं is a *lapsus styli* for राज्याश्रीः as other grants read.

11. Last akshara nearly obliterated.

14. The sign used before कुशली is, as in the corresponding passages of other grants, the Jñānāmūlyas: see *Jour. Indol. Br. R. As. Soc.* X. 21.

15. Last akshara half gone.

PLATE II.

प्रायमायात्मनैवैहिकामुष्मिकयथाभिलषितकलापति—१
निमित्तमाचन्द्राकर्णवक्षितस्थितिसमकालीनः विहारस्य प-
वित—२—
विश्रीर्णप्रतिसेस्कारणत्यं भूपदीपतैलगुणोपयोगि च स-
र्वास्मदा.....—३—
स्तावन्नेपीयः सदित्यदावकरणः सवातभूतप्रत्यापः भूमिचिह्न-
न्ययेन—४—
बलभ्यां स्वभागिनेयीपरमोपासिकादुदुकारितविहारप्रतिष्ठापि-
नानां—५—
भगवतां सम्यक्संबुद्धानां बुद्धानामार्यभिक्षुसंघस्य च पिण्डपा-
नगलनमेपज—६—
श्रीवरिकागुणयोग्यानुदुष्यपरान्ते विप्लरुद्धुरीयामो दत्त
[ः] यतः—७—

1. First akshara half gone, as well as the last.

2. Last two aksharas very indistinct.

3. Second akshara half obliterated. Akshara 26 uncertain; several letters lost.

4. Lower part of first akshara lost. प्रक्षेपीयः a *lapsus styli* for प्रक्षेपणीयः, as the corresponding passages of many grants show.

5. Last three aksharas very indistinct, though not uncertain.

तत्राधिकृतानां यत्तलोत्पद्यते तदुद्गाहयतां न केनचित्प्रतिषेधो
—८—

विचारणा वा काव्योस्मद्वैजयैरप्यनित्यं मानुष्यमस्थिराद्यै-
श्वर्योप्ये—९—

श्चायमस्मदाशेनुमन्तव्यः पश्चाच्छिन्नाश्चाच्छिद्यमानं नानुमो-
देव स पंच—१०—

भिः महापातकैः सोपपातकैश्च संपुक्तः स्यादत्र च व्यासोक्तः
शोको भवति ॥ स्वदत्तां—११—

परदत्तां वा यो हरेत् वसुन्धरां गवां क्षातसहस्रस्य हन्तुः प्रा-
प्नोति किंस्वपं—१२—

[स्व] हस्ती मम महासामन्तमहाप्रतीहारमहादण्डनायकमहा-
कार्त्तिक—१३—

म[हा]रा[ज]श्रीधुवसेनस्य... भोगिकवैकुण्ठः लिखितं कि-
ककेन ॥ सं २१६ माघ वदि ३—१४

6. The *ṛ* of *ṛṇān* indistinct. But the reading is supported by the corresponding passage of my grant of Dhruvasena II.

7. Visarga after akshara 26 lost.

11. Seventh akshara uncertain. If it is सो the च after पपातकैः is superfluous and ungrammatical.

13. First akshara obliterated, the next two indistinct.

14. Second and fourth aksharas obliterated. Aksharas 10-14 uncertain on account of the break in the plate, third figure uncertain, दि uncertain.

Translation.

Hail! From the camp of victory, pitched at the village of *Khuḍḍavedīya*. (There lived formerly) the illustrious *Senāpati Bhaṭārka*, who obtained an empire through the matchless power of his friends that humbled (his) enemies by main force,—who gained glory in a hundred battles fought at close quarters,—who acquired royal splendour through the strength of a multitude of friendly kings, faithful by virtue of their affection gained by gifts, and honours, the results of (*Bhaṭārka's*) glory, and by (his) uprightness.

His son (was) the devotee of *Mahēśvara*, the illustrious *Senāpati Dharasena*, whose bending head was reddened and sanctified by the dust of his (father's) feet,—the brilliancy of whose foot-nails was obscured by the glitter of the crest-jewels of his prostrate enemies,—whose wealth afforded sustenance to the distressed and helpless.

His younger brother (was) the devotee of *Mahēśvara*, the illustrious *Mahārāja Droṇasimha*, comparable to a lion, whose spotless crest-jewel (received) additional lustre through his doing obeisance at his (brother's) feet,—who like *Yudhisṭhira* (observed as his) law the rules and ordinances proclaimed by *Mann* and other (sages),—who enforced the rules on (religious) obedience,—whose royal splendour was sanctified by the great gift, his solemn coronation performed by the supreme lord, the Lord paramount of the whole earth, in person.

His younger brother (was) the devotee of *Bhagavat*, the great feudatory prince, the great chamberlain, the great general,* the great *Kārtā-*

kritika,† the *Mahārāja*, the illustrious *Dhruvasena*, (always) meditating on the feet of the supreme *Bhaṭāraka*‡,—by the strength of his arm sole conqueror of hosts of hostile elephants,—the refuge of suppliants,—learned in the truth, the *Śāstras'* meaning—granting, like the tree of Paradise, the fruits of their wishes to his loving friends according to their desires.

(He), being in the enjoyment of good health, addresses (these) commands to *all* his own officials, heads (of villages), (heads) of towns, fortune-tellers,§ warriors, and others:—

"Be it known to you that in order to increase the spiritual merit of my parents, and in order to obtain according to my desires blessings in this life and in that to come, I have granted the village of *Pippalarunkhari*, || (situated) at the extremity of *Anupunjya*, which is not to be meddled with by our officials,¶ together with...*, and together with all revenues† derived therefrom, according to the analogy of the familiar instance of the ground and the cleft,‡ to the worshipful *Buddha* endowed with perfect intelligence, who have been consecrated at *Valabhi* in the monastery erected by (my) own sister's daughter, the *Bauddha* devotee, *Duddā*, and to the communion of the reverend ascetics (dwelling there), for the purpose of repairing the fallen and broken (portions) of the monastery, and for procuring frankincense, lamps, oil, and flowers (for worship), and for procuring food, medicine for the sick, clothing, and so forth—the grant to hold good) as long as moon, sun, ocean, and earth endure.§ Wherefore nobody shall

* *Dandanāyaka* may mean—Magistrate, Faujdār, or General. Here it has probably the latter sense.

† *Kārtākritika* is derived from *Kṛtākrita*, "done and not done," or "done in vain." It is evidently a technical term denoting some kind of officer, and has therefore been left untranslated. I think the five titles given to *Dhruvasena* are the five *mahāśabdā* mentioned so often in ancient grants.

‡ The *Bhaṭārka* or "high lord" intended is probably the elder brother *Droṇasimha*.

§ *Chāṭa* has been translated according to Colebrooke and Pitt-Erwood Hall, though the correctness of the translation is very doubtful. Compare also *Jour. R. As. Soc. N. S. I. p. 288*.

|| The second part of this name contains apparently a derivative from the nasalized form of the Prakrit *rukha*, "tree," and the whole appears to be an equivalent of our modern *Pipled*, *Pipalghāṭ*, or *Pipalghāṭan*.

¶ The text is probably faulty, but the sense of the passage is clear from the corresponding passage of *Dhruvasena's* grant: *Samastarājāyānāmahastaprakhepanīya*.

* The compound left untranslated refers probably to some right granted to the donee. Regarding the word "Ditya," which it contains, see *Jour. R. As. Soc. I. cit. p. 284*.

† The literal translation of the compound is "together with revenue blown and grown." The latter two words seem to have a technical sense. *Vāta*, "blown," may possibly

mean "dry or dried," just as *uparāta* (see *Petersburgh Dictionary s. voce* उपरत) and refer to the dry grass and wood. The compound *śaśṭābhūtapratyāya* is used also in my grant of *Dhruvasena II.*, and the facsimile of the grant translated by Prof. Bhāṣṭārkar (*Ind. Ant. vol. I.*) has *śaśṭābhūtapratyāya*, though the transcript published in the *Jour. Bomb. Br. R. As. Soc. X. p. 80* omits the two participles.

‡ The *bhūmichchhidraṇyāya* is the "reasoning from the familiar instance of the ground and the cleft or clefts therein," or the inference that the whole includes the parts, just as a piece of land includes the various clefts therein. If it is stated in this and other grants that a village or the like is given *bhūmichchhidraṇyāya*, it means simply that it is made over with all its appurtenances, produce, rights, &c. I have heard this *Nyāya* employed by *Śāstris* conventionally, but am not now able to produce a quotation from a Sanskrit work in support of its explanation.

§ The words of the whole passage are strangely transposed,—I should say, through the fault of the very ignorant engraver. I think, however, that my arrangement of them will meet with approval, as it is clear that the village is given to the monastery of *Duddā* in *Valabhi*, with the threefold object of providing the cost of repairs, of materials for worship, and of food and clothing for the ascetics. The compound *dhūpadipatāilapashopayori* is remarkable. It can only be understood as an *avyayibhāva*.

cause let or hindrance to the owners of that (village) when they collect what grows there. The (kings) of our own line also, bearing in mind that humanity is frail and power transitory, should recognize this our grant. He who takes it away, or permits it to be taken away, shall be guilty of the five mortal sins and of the minor sins. And with reference to this (matter there) is also a verse proclaimed by *Vyāsa*: He who resumes land given by himself or by others, takes upon himself the guilt of the slayer of a hundred thousand kine." My own sign-manual (that) of the great feudatory prince, the great chamberlain, the great general, the great Kārtākritika, the Mahārāja, the illustrious Dhruvasena. . . . Written by Kikaka. On the third lunar day of the dark half of Māgha, Śaṃvat 216."

Remarks.

The value of the grant lies in its great age. None among the published plates go further back than to Dharaśena II, the great-grandson of Bhaṭārka, while here we have a document proceeding from his third son. Its date, I think, disposes of the theory that, the plates being dated according to the Śaka era,* the beginning of the Valabhi era, 318-9 A.D., coincides with the coronation of Droṇasiṃha. For, as the first two signs on this grant, 210, are perfectly certain, if dated in the Śaka era (even allowing for argument's sake the last figure to be

9), it could not be older than 297 A.D. Hence it would be dated *twenty-one* years before the beginning of the Valabhi era. I think that there is a good chance that many more Valabhi plates will shortly become accessible. I refrain, therefore, for the present from any positive suggestion on the *quæstio vexata* to what era the dates of the grants really refer.

Professor Bhāṇḍārkar has published extracts from two plates which show that the Valabhi kings, though worshippers of Brahmanical deities, extended their liberality to the Bauddhas. Hence the grant of Dhruvasena I. will excite no surprise, though it may appear strange, according to European ideas, that Dhruvasena's sister's daughter should have been a Bauddha devotee and should have founded a Buddhist monastery, while her uncle was a Vaiṣṇava. Indian history furnishes, however, many instances of great toleration on the part of kings, both in ancient and modern times. Another interesting fact which this grant reveals is that up to Dhruvasena's time the Valabhi kings were not entirely independent, but that they continued to acknowledge some other sovereign as lord paramount. No independent ruler would assume the titles Śāmanā, Pratihāra, and Daṇḍanāyaka. It would seem that Droṇasiṃha's coronation had not cut off the connexion of his house with the supreme power, but only altered its name.

NOTE ON RĀJATARANGINĪ I, 176.

BY F. KIELHORN, Ph. D.

चन्द्राचार्योदिभिल्लेब्धदेवां तस्मात्तदागमम्।

प्रवर्तितं महाभाष्यम्॥

Thus the passage is read both in the Calcutta and in the Paris edition. So far as I am aware, all scholars who have had occasion to refer to it (Lassen, *Indische Alterthumskunde*, II. p. 486; Böhtlingk, *Pāṇini*, vol. II. Introduction, p. xv.; Goldstücker, *Pāṇini*, p. 238, note; Weber, *Indische Studien*, vol. V. p. 166) agree in considering it to be corrupt; all of them have changed तस्मादेवं to तस्मात्तदागमम्, and in addition to this, Professors Lassen, Böhtlingk, and Weber have substituted तदागमे for तदागमम्.

The translations which have been proposed are the following:—

Prof. Lassen: 'Chandra and other teachers introduced the Mahābhāṣya, after having received his (viz. Abhimanyu's) orders to fetch it.'

Profs. Böhtlingk and Weber: 'The teacher Chandra and others introduced the Mahābhāṣya, after having received his (viz. the king Abhimanyu's) orders to come there (or to him).'

Prof. Goldstücker: 'After Chandra and the other grammarians had received from him (the king Abhimanyu) the order, they established a text of the Mahābhāṣya, such as it could be established by means of his MS. of this work (literally: they established a Mahābhāṣya

* Conf. Ind. Ant. vol. I. pp. 45, 60, and vol. III. pp. 235, 308.—Ed.

which possessed his—the king's—grammatical document, or, after they had received from him the order and his MS. they established the text of the *Mahābhāṣya*.)

None of these translations appears to me to be tenable; for, to omit other considerations, I do not believe that the words लब्ध्वादेवं तस्माच्चदाममे can convey the meaning ascribed to them by Lassen, Böhtlingk, and Weber, nor am I aware that the word आगम is ever used in the sense of 'a grammatical document' or 'a manuscript,' claimed for it by Prof. Goldstücker.

Left entirely to conjecture—for MS. copies of the *Rājataranginī* do not seem to exist in this part of India—I propose to read the above passage

चन्द्राचार्यैर्लिखितं देशान्तराचदामम् ।

प्रवर्तितं महाभाष्यम् ॥

and to translate thus:

'At that time Chandrāchārya and others brought into use the *Mahābhāṣya*, after having received its doctrine or traditional interpretation (आगमम्) from another (part of the) country.'

In support of this alteration and translation I must refer to the verse from the *Vākya-pādiya*.

पर्वतदागमं लब्ध्वा भण्डीजीवसुरिभिः ।

स नीतो बहुशः खल्वं चन्द्राचार्यैर्लिखितः पुनः ॥¹

which I have reprinted in the *Indian Antiquary*, vol. II. (Oct. 1874) p. 286. Those scholars in India and Europe to whom MSS. of the *Rājataranginī* are accessible will easily be able to ascertain how far my conjecture may be supported by the authority of the MSS., and none can be more willing than myself to adopt whatever other intelligible reading may be suggested by the latter; of hasty conjectures we have, I think, in Sanskrit enough already.

I cannot conclude this short note without protesting against the statement, which I find repeated over and over again, that at some time or other the text of the *Mahābhāṣya* had been lost, that it had to be reconstructed, &c. All we know at present amounts to this, that for some period of time Patanjali's great work was not studied generally, and had consequently ceased to be understood. We may perhaps allow a break so far as regards its traditional interpretation, but for the present we are bound to regard the text of the *Mahābhāṣya* as given by our MSS. to be the same as it existed about two thousand years ago.

Deccan College, February 1875.

ROUGH NOTES ON KHÂNDESH.

BY W. F. SINCLAIR, B.A. C. S.

The following notes on Khândesh are founded upon the same data as those contributed by me to the *Antiquary* respecting the races of the Purnā and Solapur Collectories, viz. personal observation and communion with the people themselves, and are of course very much open to correction from any one who may have had better opportunities of forming an opinion.

The term Khândesh is of doubtful derivation. It has been supposed to refer to the title of Khân used by the Sulṭāns of Burhānpur, and has also been derived from Kāṇh-desh, 'land of Kṛishṇa' (conf. Kāṇhpur); from Tān-desh, 'the land of thirst,' in allusion to its arid plains and scanty rainfall; facetiously from Kāṇṭadesh, 'the land of thorns,' in which it certainly abounds; and finally the author of the *Ayini Akbari* and other Musalmān writers allude to it as "Khândesh, otherwise called Dāndesh," which might be derived from "Dāṇḍeśa,"

'the mountain and the plain,' into which it is recognizedly divided in modern conversation; e.g. of two villages of the same name in the Pimpalner Tāluka, one lying in the hills is distinguished as Dāṇḍ-Sirwāra, and its more level neighbour as Deś-Sirwāra. I am inclined myself to believe in the derivation from Kāṇh, and to suppose that it was afterwards altered by the Musalmāns to the modern form. Kṛishṇa, under the name of Khandobā, is at this day, and would seem to have long been, a favourite divinity in the country. And the taste of polite Musalmāns for alterations slight in sound but important in sense is well known to scholars: e.g. the Hindu Vetāl-wari, or Devil's village, in this very country, is known to Musalmāns as Beit-ul-bārā—'the place of the house of God,' and the village of Bhosri, near Purnā, remarkable for some miniature dolmens and stone circles and for its name—utterly untranslatable in polite pages—

was civilized by them into Bhojāpur, 'the town of the burden.'

The late district of Khāndesh contained almost to an acre the country known in native conversation and to physical geography by that name—extending from the Sāt mālā, Chāndor, or Ajantā range (the first is the native name, Europeans use the other two) on the south to the Sāt purās on the north, and from the Hātī hills (which form the western face of the range that culminates at Gavilgadh) on the east to the Sahyādri on the west. These two latter boundaries are both broken at their northern extremities by the Tāpti and its alluvial plain, across which I would draw at each end an imaginary line—on the east a few miles east of Burhānpūr, though that city is now included in modern and official Nimār; and on the west at the Haran Pāl of the Tāpti, a little west of Kukarmunda, though the boundary of the present district lies thirty miles further into what is really a part of Gujarāt.

The country so described forms the first and easternmost member of that great fan-shaped drainage area the ribs or radii of which have for a centre or handle the Arabian Sea, and which may be said to extend from the above-mentioned Sāt mālā hills, south of which the sacred Gaṅgā or Godāvarī flows eastwards into the Bay of Bengal, to the mountains which divide the Red Sea from the Basin of the Nile. The modern district, however, of which only I have any experience, has been shorn not merely of its ancient capital of Burhānpūr and the upper plain of the Tāpti, but of three south-western tālukās—Nandgām, Mālegām, and Bāglāna—added in 1869 to the Dekhan Collectorate of Nāsik. In recompense for this, it not only includes the Nowapur Peṭā—in language, soil, and position, a part of Gujarāt—but stretches an arm across the Sāt purās at its north-west corner to grasp the Akrānī Parganā, whose waters flow into the Narmadā.

There is no modern race that has made Khāndesh its own, and the term Khāndeshī expresses merely the accident of birth. Lying between Central India, Gujarāt, and the Dekhan tableland, regions having each its distinctive population, the basin of the Tāpti has been colonized by immigrants from all these, so as to produce a wonderful mixture of tribes, prevented by the laws of caste from fusion into

a homogeneous race, and using a patois like the speech of Sir Hudibras,

"A particoloured dress

Of patched and piebald languages."

It is a common thing there to hear a native address his neighbour in Marāṭhī, finishing the sentence in Hindustānī; and he will very likely be answered in a speech characterized by the use of the Gujarātī genitive in 'aa.' The Marāṭhī, of course, prevails in the south-west, where the Marāṭhā cultivators, called here Dekhanīs, form the bulk of the population. In the north-west Gujarātī is the prevailing element, and in the north-east the colloquial speech of the poorest cultivators is much like the patois called Nemāḍī—a cross betwixt Marāṭhī and bad Hindī; but the Gujar element is there also very strong among the richer cultivators, and affects their speech, as might be expected.

The use, however, of Marāṭhī by the officers of the Peśwās' and our Government and in Government schools is giving it a considerable ascendancy; though Gujarātī is here, as throughout the north of the Presidency, the language of commercial correspondence; and the Musalmāns of course stand, as usual, aloof, and disdain to learn the speech of idolaters—contenting themselves with a vocabulary as scanty as the ideas it is expected to express, and an atrociously corrupt pronunciation of what they are pleased to call Hindustānī. The most marked local tendency of all these languages, however, is to drop every possible consonant. Liquids go first, of course, as in *Ko'i* for *Kolī*, *Mā'i* for *Mālī*; but they are often followed by sibilants, as in *rai'ta* for *vasta*, and by gutturals, as in *Waijo* for *Wāgdeo*. Of course the lower you go in the social scale the stronger is this provincialism, which I cannot help endeavouring to trace to the influence of the aboriginal races, among whom it is most marked.

(A.) Brāhmaṇs.

(B.) Shankarjātya, or mixed castes, chiefly traders and artizans.

These two classes much resemble their congeners in the Dekhan. In the third class, however, (C), that of military and cultivating races, we find a curious inversion of the conditions of the Marāṭhā and Rājput. For though the Marāṭhās of Khāndesh are not so exclusively military in disposition as the Rājputs of the

Dekhan, they show a great approach to that character, especially in the northern part of the district, where they are least numerous; and throughout it they are known as *Dekhanis*, in exactly the same way as the *Rājput*s of Junnar, &c. are called *Pardesīs*. Although one can hardly say that their character is modified, still its shrewd unscrupulousness is perhaps more often highly developed among these descendants of emigrants and invaders than further south; while the *Rājput*s, on the other hand, who are pretty numerous north of the *Tāptī*, are generally peaceable agriculturists, much more nearly resembling the *Gujar Kunbis*, who dwell beside them, than the smart and hardy descendants of imperial armies in the Dekhan, or the martial *Kshatriya*s of Hindustān. Many of them are *pāṭils* and *chandrīs* of villages; and of these a few enjoy among their own people the titles of "*Rāwat*" and "*Rāwal*," and something of the status of petty chieftains. These, of course, retain something of the military character of the race. These cultivating *Rājput*s are never called *Pardesīs* in Khāndesh. The *Solankhī*, or *Chālukya* clan, is the most numerous. The name is here pronounced and written '*Saluṅke*,' which is also the Marāṭhī name of the common *Mainā* (*Graculus religiosus*), but whether there is any connexion between the bird and the clan I do not know.

The *Gujar Kunbis* are very numerous throughout most part of Khāndesh, and in the north-west the land is almost entirely in their hands. They are skilful agriculturists, and, being fully a match in acuteness and roguery for their countrymen the *Wāṇīs*, are more free from debt—and indeed more apt to have others in theirs—than any other body of cultivators that I know. There are several castes of them not easily distinguishable, but the following are the chief divisions:—The *Rewas* derive their name from the goddess-river *Rewa* or *Narmadā*, whom they reverence exceedingly. They are, I believe, identical with the caste called '*Lewa*' in Ahmadābād, but inquiries made in 1872 proved them to be free from the

practice of infanticide, of which these last are accused.

The *Pāznīs* claim to be a branch of the *Rewas*, which the latter do not admit. Neither of these eat meat; a third caste, the *Dodhe Gujaras*, do—in some villages, at any rate.

The *Therol Kunbis* profess to be immigrants from a place called *Therol*, in Hindustān, which I have never been able to identify. There is a place of this name on the *Pūrna* river in the *Edalābād* *Peṭā* of Khāndesh itself. They also eat meat, and are not so strongly distinguished from the *Marāṭhās* as are the three castes of *Gujar Kunbis*.

The late Major Forsyth, in his *Report upon the Settlement of Nimār*, published by the Government of the Central Provinces, alludes cursorily to this caste, but also mentions another of the same name, descended from a colony said to have been imported by the *Peśwās* from the Dekhan "in 600 carts;" of whom some settled in what is now British *Nimār*, and some near *Kargūd*, in *Holkar's* territory. These were probably *Tilāri Kunbis*, a race well known in the North *Koṅkan*, but not (as far as I am aware) found above the *Ghāts*. I have already mentioned* that some villages on the *Tāptī* are inhabited and cultivated chiefly by *Nahāvis* or barbers, and some on the *Girnā* by *Parits* or washermen. In both cases they are supposed to be immigrants from Hindustān or Central India, and in both they have become much assimilated to their agricultural neighbours. None of these cultivating races care much about the service of Government, either military or civil.

A peculiar race called *Ālwāls* cultivate the *Āl* (*Morinda citrifolia*) and nothing else. I do not know much of them personally, but there is a full account of them in Major Forsyth's *Report* already quoted. The *Mālis* are the same here as in the Dekhan, and there are no *Lingayat* or Jain cultivators in Khāndesh.

*Rāthod Rājput*s from *Mārwar*; *Makrānis*; *Arabs*; *Rohillās*, and *Pathāns* from the *Panjāb* and *Afghanistan* are found in the employ of merchants as treasure-guards.

THE DVAIASHARĀYA.

(Continued from p. 77.)

The Sixth Sarga.

Some time afterwards a son was born to *Mularāja*, named *Chāmand Rāja*. From his

* *Ind. Ant.* vol. III. p. 76.

childhood this prince was very clever, and was fond of going to the *Rudra Prasāda*,† where the elders assembled, that he might hear the *Mahā-*

† The *Rudra Māhā* Temple at *Siddhapur*.

śāstrata. Once on a time, the prince, making his salutation to the Rāja, sat down in the court: at that time the Rāja of Aṅgaśa brought a chariot to present to Mularāja. On his informing the stick-bearer, he came and told Mularāja of the offering the Aṅga Rāja had brought to propitiate him. He described the presents of elephants, jewels, &c., and praised the jewels for their richness which the Rāja, who lived on the sea-shore, had brought with him. "O Rāja! the king of Vanavāsadeśa has brought a present with great submission: in his country much gold is found. O King! this Rāja of Devagiri has come agreeing to pay a proper yearly tribute. The Rāja of the great city of Kōlhāpur has brought the *Padmaraya* and other jewels as a gift: the Kāśmir Rāja has brought musk—much esteemed in his country. The Rāja of Kurudeśa has brought a five-coloured *chattrā* that may be used either in the heat or in the rains. Pāñchāla Rāja of Kampilya city in Pāñchāladeśa has brought cows and slaves. Dvārāpa Rāja of Lāṭa, who enjoys the south country, has brought slaves and an elephant—one of a bad character." When he had said this, the Rāja, looking at the Kuīvarji, asked—"What kind of an elephant is this that is of a bad character?" The Kuīvarji rising looked at the elephant, and, examining it according to the *śāstras* for that purpose composed by Brihaspati, said—"Its tail is like a dog's: whatever rāja keeps it in his court destroys both himself and his race. The reason why the Rāja of Lāṭadeśa has sent such an incarnation of death must be that he is envious, having heard of your fame. Send therefore an army to destroy him. I too am ready to go." When he heard this the Rāja replied—"Son! the *śulkrata* is not good now; wait a little." Then they gave back the elephant to them that brought it, with contempt of the Lāṭa people, who returned home without honour.

The next day Mularāja with his son and an army started to attack Lāṭadeśa. Mularāja advanced to the banks of the Śchabhravati (शुश्रुति) (? Narmadā), the limits of his kingdom. The women of Śūryapur who were washing in that river, seeing the troops of Mularāja, fled away. The women of Lāṭadeśa were thick-waisted, and therefore not good-looking, and dirty as if they

were always beside the cooking-fires. On the banks of the Śchabhravati is the city of Bhṛīgukachhā (Bharuch), of which the people, in dread of Mularāja's army, fled in all directions. The Rāja of Lāṭa, bringing his army, prepared for a contest. To attack him Chāmānd Rāja advanced. The Lāṭa Rāja was not valorous, so Chāmānd Rāja knew there would be no trouble in overcoming him. To his son's assistance Mularāja sent certain Rājas and troops. The Kuīvar's army defeated that of Lāṭa. The island (*dvīpa*) kings were on the side of the Lāṭa Rāja. In this contest the Kuīvarji overcame, slaying his enemy. He returned to salute his father because of his victory. Mularāja embraced the Kuīvar affectionately. Then came Mularāja and the Kuīvar to Anahilapūra. Mularāja sent for his principal ministers, the *gors*, the *paṇḍits* and the astrologers, in order to perform the inauguration of his son. They answered that Chāmānd Rāja was worthy of the throne, and that the *śulkrata* was favourable. Then the Rāja caused the Kuīvarji to be inaugurated.* After this Mularāja presented many kinds of gifts to the Brāhmins at Śrīsthala (*Siddhapur*), on the banks of the Sarasvati, and then mounted the funeral pile.

The Seventh Sarga.

After this Chāmānd Rāja managed the affairs of the kingdom well. He increased his treasures, his army, and his fame. Chāmānd Rāja was deficient in nothing, and he preserved the land-gift that his father had bequeathed to him. To Chāmānd a son named Vallabh Rāja was born: he too became skilled in kingcraft and fit for the throne. This prince even in his childhood began to learn wisdom (*vidyā*): in his amusements with the boys he played at apprehending thieves as well as at *godī dōḍā*, and practised martial exercises with a little bow and arrows. Vallabh Rāja grew up condescending and brave: therefore the king was greatly pleased in heart, and the enemies, who had looked forward in expectation of living in quiet after Chāmānd Rāja's decease, lost that hope. Chāmānd Rāja had another son, named Durabh Rāja: he too became so full of exploits, that for fear of him no Asura could lift up his head. When the Joshis examined this Kuīvar's *janmotṛī*, they pronounced with confidence that the prince would

be celebrated for great exploits: that he would conquer his enemies, encourage the practice of wisdom, and become a Mahārājādhirāja.

Durlabha Rāja and his elder brother Vallabha Rāja pursued their studies together, and had great affection for each other, setting their father before them as an example. Afterwards Chāmand Rāja had a third son, named Nāga Rāja.

Once on a time Chāmand Rāja, inflamed by sensual passion, did wrong to his sister Chāchhī Devī: to expiate this sin he placed Vallabha Rāja on the throne, and went on a pilgrimage to Kāśī. By the way the Rāja of Mālwa took from him the umbrella, *chāmara*, and other insignia of royalty. Chāmand, having accomplished his pilgrimage to Kāśī, returned to Paṭṭan, and said to Vallabha Rāja—"If you are my son, go and punish the Mālwa Rāja." In obedience to this order, Vallabha Rāja, taking his army, advanced towards Mālwa.

On his way to Mālwa several kings, bringing presents in their hands, came to meet Vallabha Rāja. They said to him—"Going by this route the Pārapāra river and the Sindhuśindhu river must be crossed: therefore be pleased to take the way of Kuntaladeśa,* and you will not have to cross these rivers." Then he went by that road. Afterwards, as fate had decreed, Vallabha Rāja was afflicted in his person with the disease called *śītalā* (small-pox), which no physician was able to cure. Then Vallabha Rāja, abandoning the hope of battle, began to pray to Parmeśvara and to perform religious rites. The Pradhān and the Senāpati then said to Vallabha Rāja—"Let us now return to Anahillapur:" and Vallabha Rāja replied—"If at this time you do not manage with great care, you will cause the loss of the throne of Anahillapur to my race. Wherefore, without allowing the news of my death to get abroad, do you go back to Anahillapur." Saying thus, Vallabha Rāja sent the army back and died there (A.D. 1010).

With great sorrow the army returned home, and entered Paṭṭan, and with deep grief related the whole matter to Rāja Chāmand. For his son the Rāja lamented much. Then, in order to depart to Śukla Tīrtha to perform penances, the Rāja seated Durlabha on the throne, and

retired to Śukla Tīrtha,† on the banks of the Narmadā, where he died.

After that Durlabha Rāja managed the affairs of the kingdom after a good fashion. This Durlabha Rāja bravely conquered the Asuras, and performed religious acts, building temples, &c.

Śrī Jineśvara Suri gave instructions to this Durlabha Rāja: therefore, being informed in the rudiments of the Jaina religion, he travelled in the good way of pity for living things.

After this Durlabha Rāja's sister, as a Swayamvara, chose Mahendra, the Rāja of Mārwaḍ, for her husband.

According to the practice of his ancestors, this Durlabha also employed himself in defeating his enemies, &c. Once it happened that Durlabha Rāja went in great splendour into Mārvaḍdeśa, to the Rāja of Nādudeśa, and to the city of Mahendra Rāja. Then Mahendra Rāja advanced many *kos* to meet him, received him with due respect, and laid presents before him. Durlabha Rāja wished to marry Mahendra Rāja's sister. Durlabha was exceedingly handsome: the *Swayamvara-maṇḍapa* was erected for the nuptials of Mahendra Rāja's sister: into the *maṇḍapa* Durlabha entered and seated himself, wherefore the *Swayamvara-maṇḍapa* appeared very splendid. Many other kings also graced the *maṇḍapa* with their presence. Into that assembly came Durlabha Devī, the sister of Mahendra Rāja, to select as bridegroom him that pleased her. She was attended by a *chobdār's* wife, who, naming the Rājas, enabled her to recognize them. When they saw Durlabha Devī, each of the Rājas wished in his heart that the damsel would speedily select him. In this assembly were the Rājas of Aṅgadeśa, of Kāśī, of Ujjaina, of Vaidīdeśa, of Kurudeśa, of Māthuradeśa, of Andradeśa. The Chobdār's wife kept telling the Kūvari of the actions of all these Rājas; afterwards she said to her,—“This is the king of Gujārādeśa, in whose country Lakshmi and Sarasvatī dwell together in union: this king's name is Durlabha Rāja—the meaning of which is that she who has performed much penance will obtain him. Your name too is Durlabha Devī, therefore there is a union of the

* Part of Belār or Advānī? see *As. Res.* vol. IX. p. 435.

† Near Bharuch.

names of you both, which according to the *jyotishyāśāstra* is very fortunate."

Then Durlabha Devī threw on the Rāja's neck the *varmāṇā* that she held in her hand. Then were all the other kings enraged at Durlabha Rāja. The Brāhmanas now advancing performed, according to the *Śāstra* rules, the marriage ceremony. Mahendra Rāja gave horses, &c. with much wealth, to the Chālukya as *peherāmanā*. Afterwards Mahendra Rāja married his younger sister to Nāga Rāja, the younger brother of Durlabha. With their brides, Durlabha Rāja and Nāga Rāja set off towards Paṭṭān, Mahendra Rāja attending them for many a *kos*.

The Rājas who had come in the hope of gaining Durlabha Devī in marriage had already taken the road, in order to fight with Durlabha Rāja. They came prepared for battle. The armies of enemies rose up on all sides as fire in the forest; but Durlabha Rāja was no ways dismayed. Ashamed of fighting with these shameless ones,—instead of fighting with them, Durlabha at that time merely warded off their weapons. Some of the kings, however, Durlabha Rāja smote with arrows. The Rāja of Āṅgadeśa gave up the fight and submitted to Durlabha Rāja; the Mālwa Rāja throw down his weapons; the Rāja of Hūndeśa fled away; the Māthura Rāja went to call to his aid the Turks and mountaineers: the Rāja of Andradeśa was wounded; the Vaidia Rāja, the Kuru Rāja, and the Kāśī Rāja, with others, fled with blackened faces. Thus gaining the victory, with great splendour Durlabha Rāja entered Paṭṭān.

The Eighth Sarga.

After this Durlabha's younger brother, Nāga Rāja, had a son named Bhīma.* Mortals owe three debts,—First, *Brahmakshana*; second, *Devakshana*; third, *Pitrikshana*. *Brahmakshana* is paid by chastity and the cultivation of wisdom; *Devakshana* by the performance of fire-sacrifice; *Pitrikshana* by begetting a son:—so is it written in the *Karma Khanda*. When therefore Bhīma was born, on account of the debt to the Pitris having been paid, Durlabha Rāja and Nāga Rāja joyfully held high festival at the court. At the time of the Kuṅvarji's birth a voice from the sky proclaimed—"Whatever Rāja does not keep friends with this Bhīma

will Bhīma imprison, or slay, or fight with; to himself will he subdue certain lands and seas. This Bhīma will practise science extensively, and the people who are of *Nāstika* (atheistical) opinions, or who reckon that neither good nor evil arises from religion or irreligion, will he utterly destroy."

Very dear was this Kuṅvar to Durlabha Rāja: therefore he used to make him lie on his own couch, to give him mangoes and fruits to eat, and to play with him; the half of the revenues of his kingdom he used to spend on the Kuṅvar. On his neck the Kuṅvar wore an ornament of gold set with diamonds—very beautiful to behold. When the Kuṅvar grew up, he used to go to the chase, but he would only cut the horns and hoofs of the deer, not take their lives. He so learnt the pugilistic art that no pugilist was able to fight with him.

Once on a time Durlabha Rāja said in great joy—"O Bhīma! take you the management of this kingdom and fight with its enemies; I will now go to a place of pilgrimage and perform penances for the happiness of my soul." When the Kuṅvarji heard this, he answered with tears in his eyes—"In your lifetime I will not consent to royalty; besides, you talk of performing penances, but the fruit of penance is royalty, which to the full extent you have obtained and may obtain,—therefore there needs not to perform penance. And if perchance it be from desire of *svarga* that you wish to perform penance, know then that according to the *Kṣhetra Dharma*, by turning not back from the enemy you have gained the victory,—you will therefore without doubt obtain *svarga*: in this view too it is unnecessary to perform penance." Hearing these words the king replied,—“It is written in the *Smṛitis* that when a son becomes of age to manage royalty the father should resign to him the throne and go to perform penance; therefore now that I am grown old, I am not fit to retain royalty, but if Nāga Rāja will manage the kingdom, then too it is well.” Nāga Rāja, hearing these words, said—"As when Yudhishthira went to perform penance, his younger brothers went with him, so I too, refusing royalty, will accompany you." Afterwards Durlabha Rāja and Nāga Rāja, persuading Bhīma, performed his installation. Then fell a rain

* This is summarized in *Rās Mālā*, vol. I. pp. 70, 71.

of flowers from the sky. After that Durlabha Rāja* and Nāgarāja made *svargavāsa* at Pattan.

Bhima Deva ruled well, and refused pardon to the crime of incontinency. He apprehended thieves cleverly, and punished them, so that the offences of depredation diminished in his reign. This Bhima was called Rāja of Rājas, and entertained such exceeding pity for life that even the wolf in the forest was restrained from taking life. Some kings fleeing from fear of their enemies lived under the protection of Bhima, some took service with him. The Rāja of Pundraśa sent presents; the Rāja of Andraśa sent him a necklace: Bhima's fame spread into Magadhaśa also, therefore the poets of that country began to celebrate his exploits in the Māgadha language. In other languages also were books written relating the story of Bhima. From these books having been spread abroad in distant countries, the fame of Bhima became known familiarly to men in remote lands.

Once on a time some one said to Bhima—“O Rāja! on the earth the Sindh Rāja and the Rāja of Chedīśa,* in their pride, alone regard not your fame, and cause books to be composed setting forth faults in you. The Sindh Rāja says too that he will strike Bhima. This Rāja of Sindh has conquered the Rāja of Śivaśaṇa and made him his subject. The strength of this Sindh Rāja and the projects of his heart cannot be estimated. Many lords of fortresses and rājas of islands have become

subject to the Rāja of Sindh. When his army sets out on *mulakgiri*, no Rāja can restrain him, and Sindhśa and Chedīśa are under his sole control.” Hearing these and other things from the mouth of this spy, Bhima, sending for his minister, began to ponder over this matter.

The king, having collected an army, set forth. Then Bhima went to the Panjāb, near to Sindh, where five rivers flow together; like a sea was the stream of these five rivers,—therefore the Rāja had to consider how the whole army could be crossed over to the opposite bank. It was because of the strength of these floods, strong as a fortress, that the Sindh Rāja slept in peace, having conquered his enemies. Then breaking down hills, with the great stones thereof they began to build a bridge. When they had begun the bridge, then the waters of the stream dividing began to take another channel, as milk upon the fire boils over. For the bridge they used green trees and dry, stones and earth. Bhima was pleased when he saw the work of the bridge finished, and to make all happy he distributed sugar and food to all. Then crossing the bridge they went to Sindh. The king of Sindh came to oppose them in battle: a fight of missiles ensued; the Chandravāsi Bhima fought well, he took prisoners many of the warriors of the Sindh Rāja. In this way conquering in Sindh, he subjected to himself the Sindh Rāja, whose name was Hamuk.

(To be continued.)

SWORD-WORSHIP IN KĀCHĀR.

BY G. H. DAMANT, B.A., B.C.S., RANGPUR.

The most venerated of all the deities worshipped in Kāchār is a goddess called Rān Chāndī. She was the tutelary deity of the old Rājas of Kāchār, and is held in the highest respect not only by the Kāchāris, but also by the Bengalis and other Hindus who have settled in the district. One of the queens of the last Rāja, Govinda Chandra, who died in 1830, still survives, and she

keeps up the image and worship of Rān Chāndī. The image has never been shown to any one except the reigning Rāja and the officiating Brāhman, as the goddess had ordered that she was not to be exhibited, and would strike dead any one who saw her; and her reputation has doubtless been greatly magnified by the mystery which has surrounded her.

* “The same story that is told by Hemāchārya of Chāmand Rāja is repeated by the author of the *Prabandha Chintāmaṇi* in reference to Durlabha Rāja, who is stated to have proceeded on a pilgrimage to Banāras after having resigned the throne to Bhima Deva, and to have been obstructed in his passage through Mālwa by Munja Rāja, who then ruled there, and who compelled him to lay aside the emblems of royalty. Durlabha, it is said, proceeded on his pilgrimage in the attire of a monk, and died at Banāras,—having, however,

caused Bhima Deva to become acquainted with the insulting conduct of the Rāja of Mālwa. From that time, it is added, there arose a root of enmity between the lord of Gujārat and the Mālwa king.” *Rās Mālā*, vol. I. p. 71. Conf. Tod, *Western India*, pp. 170-1. Durlabha Sen ascended the throne in A.D. 1019, and Bhima Deva in 1021.

* Chedī, says Forbes, has been conjectured to be the modern Chāndail in Goudwānā. It was the country of Śisupāla, the enemy of Krishna. *Rās Mālā*, vol. I. p. 82. Conf. Tod, *Western India*, p. 331.

A few days ago, after representing to the Brāhman that we were the Rāja for the time being, the Deputy Commissioner and I succeeded in seeing the celebrated goddess. She was kept in a small thatched house fenced in on every side, and no one but ourselves and the *pūjāri* Brāhman was allowed to come near. The images were brought out, and we found there was a brass image of Rān Chandī and another of Shama, and two swords which were supposed to be incarnations (if such a phrase may be used) of the goddesses. The swords looked very ancient; one of them was pointed, and the other cut off straight at the point: they appeared to me to have been intended for sacrifices. They were entirely of iron, with no ornaments about them, but evidently kept with great care, and painted with red and white.

The story of Rān Chandī, as told me by the Kāchāris, is as follows:—

There was once a Kāchāri Rāja named Nīr-bhar Nārāyaṇ, who was renowned as a just and wise prince, but he only worshipped Vishṇu and never offered sacrifices, till one night Rān Chandī appeared to him in a dream and said, "To-morrow morning early you must go to the bank of the river Madma (the place is now called Chandighāt) and there you will see a living creature; seize it fearlessly by the head and take it away in whatever form it may assume, and worship it and offer sacrifices to it: by doing this you will become great, and your children will reign after you." Next morning the king, as the goddess had commanded, went to the river-side and there he saw a terrible snake playing in the

water: he was alarmed at the sight, and instead of seizing it by the head he caught it by the tail, and the goddess took the form of a sword and was worshipped under the name of Rān Chandī. But the king, thinking that the taking of life was the greatest sin he could commit, offered no sacrifices to the goddess, and she became angry with him and struck all his musical instruments, guns and cannons dumb, so that their sound could not be heard, and again appeared to him in a dream and said, "You will enjoy your kingdom no longer; so to-morrow cause instruments to be played and guns to be fired in every house, and in whosoever's house you hear the sound of instruments and guns, mount him on the throne and yourself cease from reigning." So the king did as he was ordered, and as he only found one man in whose house he could hear the sound of instruments and guns, he made him ascend the throne, and himself retired from the kingdom. This man, whose name was Uday Bhīm Nārāyaṇ, pleased the goddess so much by offering her a lakh of sacrifices and continually worshipping her, that his posterity, down to the time of Rāja Govinda Chandra, have always sat on the throne of Kāchār.

The goddess Shama, who is supposed to be embodied in the other sword, is said to have been captured from a king of the Dehāns, the hereditary bondsmen of the Kāchāris, by Rāja Boulla, a king who reigned at Maibong, a place in the North Kāchāri hills near Asala, where ruins still exist, from Khāspur, the former capital of the Dehāns.

INSCRIPTIONS AT BAIL-HOŃGAL, IN THE SAMPGAUM TALUKĀ OF THE BELGAUM DISTRICT.

BY J. F. FLEET, B.C.S.

The temple at Bail-HoŃgal, standing to the north of the town outside the walls, is now a Liṅga shrine, but appears to have been originally a Jain building. It has two inscriptions connected with it:—

No. 1. The first inscription is contained on a stone tablet standing on the right front of the temple, i. e. on the left hand of any one facing the temple. The emblems at the top of the stone are:—In the centre, a liṅga and priest; on their right, the sun; and on their left, a cow and calf with the moon beyond them. The

inscription is in the Old Canarese characters and language. There are traces of about 73 lines averaging 46 letters each. The stone seems to be a schistose limestone, and the surface of it is full of small fissures and is very much worn away. With great labour the contents of the first twenty lines or so might be made out, but no connected transcription could possibly be made of the remainder; only a few letters are legible here and there. It is a Raṭṭa inscription, that family being mentioned in it by the older form of the name,—Rāshṭrakūṭa. In

line 11 it refers itself to the time of the Chālukya king Trailōkyamalladēva,—either Sōmēśvaradēva I. (Śaka 962 ? to 991 ?) or Tailapadēva III. (Śaka 1072 to 1104), both of whom bore that title; as I have shewn in my paper on the Rāṭṭas that the chieftains of the Saundatti branch of that family were independent from about Śaka 1050, I conclude that the Trailōkyamalladēva here mentioned is Sōmēśvaradēva I. However, I could not trace in this inscription the name of the particular chieftain whose grants are recorded; but the titles applied to him are very similar to those of the Kalhoḷi inscription.

No. 2 is another inscription in the Old Canarese characters and languages, consisting of 51 lines of about 39 letters each, and contained on a stone tablet which was lying in the hedge surrounding the town, but which I have had set upright on the left front of the temple. The

emblems at the top of the stone are:—In the centre, a seated figure of Jinēdra; on its right, a standing figure, full front, with the moon above it; and on its left, a cow and calf with the sun above them. The stone is blacker and harder than the preceding, but the inscription on it is still more hopelessly effaced, and no transcription can be made of it. It is evidently a Rāṭṭa inscription, as it mentions a king Kārtavīrya who was ruling "with the diversion of joyful conversations." Its date is given in line 35, and is the Śaka year 1086 (A.D. 1164-65), being the Tārāṇa *samvatsara*. Accordingly the Kārtavīrya here mentioned is the third of that name in my list of the Rāṭṭas,—the Kattama for whom I had not previously succeeded in obtaining a date. Further on the inscription mentions a Jain Basadi, and probably records the building of the temple to which it is now attached and the allotment of grants to it.

KĀMANDAKI ON THE POISONING OF KINGS.

Whilst the eyes of all India are turned towards Baroda, and the inquiry which is now being conducted there, it may not be uninteresting to reproduce, in an English garb, the rules laid down two thousand years ago by Kāmandakī for the guidance of kings in the matter of poisoning. His ideas are exceedingly quaint, and have probably been disregarded for some centuries even by the most orthodox and conservative. The extract is taken from the seventh chapter of the *Nītisāra*. It is a pity that this work is not brought more prominently forward, and adopted in some measure as a substitute for the *Panchatantra*. The *Nīti* of the latter was no doubt taken from Kāmandakī, and reset by Viśṇuśarmā in baser metal, more calculated, however, to please the weaker and more sensual minds of a later generation.

The only printed text of the *Nītisāra* obtainable in India is that edited in 1861 by Bābū Rājendralāla Mitra. That scholar states in his preface that his text was prepared "from a modern but very correct manuscript obtained at Benares," collated with "an utterly unreliable" manuscript in the Library of the Asiatic Society, and with a commentary which was "of great use in settling the reading and meaning of a great number of technical terms."

With all respect for the learned Bābū, it would appear, however, that the MS. first named was not so very correct as he considered it to be; for over and over again the reading of the commentary is vastly superior to that adopted in the text, which is sometimes almost meaningless. It is time, however, to return to the more immediate subject of this paper, and allow the Paṇḍit to speak:—

"A king should everywhere be careful regarding his conveyance, couch, water, food, clothes and ornaments, discarding that which has been poisoned.

After bathing in water that is an antidote to poison, adorned with the poison-destroying gem, let him eat that which has been thoroughly examined, surrounded by physicians acquainted with poisons and their antidotes.

At the sight of a poisonous snake, the Malabar Shrike, the Parrot, and the Mainā are terribly alarmed and scream out.

When beholding poison, the eyes of the partridge lose their natural colour, the curlew becomes clearly inebriated, the cuckoo dies; and in every case languor supervenes.

The king therefore should eat that which has been inspected by one of the above.

Snakes do not appear when peacocks and the

potted antelope are let loose, so they ought always to be at large in a house.

Some of the food intended to be eaten should first, by way of test, be put into the fire, some be given to the birds, and the effects should then be observed.

If the food has been poisoned, the smoke and flame of the fire will be darkened and there will be a crackling noise,—the birds will die.

[The effects on the eater are] absence of perspiration, intoxication, sudden coldness, absence of colour; and the vapour arising from poisoned food is thick and dark.

Condiments speedily dry up, and when boiling assume a dark frothy appearance, changing also in smell, feeling, and taste.

When a liquid is defiled by poison, its lustre may be either increased or lessened, an upright streak appears, and a circle of froth.

In the midst of poisoned juice [as of sugar-cane, &c.] a perpendicular dark-coloured streak appears, in milk a copper-coloured one, in intoxicating beverages and water one black as the cuckoo and irregular.

Under the influence of poison, a fresh [green] article of food quickly withers, and without cook-

ing looks as if it had been boiled, and assumes a dark hue,—so the learned say.

Some say that a dry substance decays and loses its clearness of colour—that a hard [or pungent] thing may become soft [or mild], and *vice versa*, so as to destroy small creatures.

Clothes and carpets infected with poison become covered with black circles,—and thread, hair and wool are destroyed.

Metals and gems become coated with dirt and mud, and their strength, brilliance, weight, colour, and feeling are affected.

An experienced man should note the following as indications of poisoning:—a dark hue on the face, change of voice, repeated yawning, stumbling, trembling, perspiration, agitation, staring vacantly in the air, restlessness when at work, and changing about from place to place.

The king should not touch medicines, beverages or food until those who prepared them have tasted them:—his ornaments and every article of attire should be brought by his own attendants, after being well examined and marked; and he should scrutinize everything received from another source."

TALIB-UL-ILM.

CORRESPONDENCE AND MISCELLANEA.

SUPPOSED ASIATIC ORIGIN OF THE PRIMITIVE AMERICAN POPULATION.

SIR,—The remarks by Mr. Walhouse on the above subject in the February part of the *Indian Antiquary*, vol. IV. p. 46, suggest to me to communicate the following.

Last year I exhibited to the Asiatic Society a perforated stone which was obtained at the Mopani coal-mines, in the district of Narsingpur, Central Provinces. In my account of it I pointed out its resemblance to some figured and described in a work on lacustrine dwellings in the lake of Neuchâtel by M. Desor. Recently I have found that a still stronger resemblance exists between it—both in size and the special characters of its perforation—and some ancient stones which have been found in abundance in Virginia and other parts of North America. The latter have been very fully described in a journal called the *American Naturalist*, but I have not the exact reference by me at present.

I am inclined to believe that when more attention has been paid than hitherto in India to the distribution of stone implements having special

characters, many useful inferences may be drawn as to the migrations of the primitive races who manufactured and used them. Only within the past few days I have received three *celts* from Dhalbhum (a zamindári in Chotâ Nâgpur). Two of these are of the shouldered type hitherto, I believe, supposed to occur exclusively in Burma and the adjoining countries.

As in the case of the Burma implements which have been described by Mr. Theobald, the Rev. Mr. Mason, and Dr. Anderson, my specimens are supposed to be thunderbolts, and a mythical story connecting one of them with a particular thunder-storm has been sent to me.

V. BALL.

Camp vid Sambalpur, 23rd February 1875.

BOTANICAL QUERY.

To the Editor of the "*Indian Antiquary*."

SIR,—I shall be much obliged for information as to the botanical name of a tree found occasionally growing wild in the Mathurâ district, and there called *Laliyâri*. The name is not given in Brandis's *Forest Flora*, nor, so far as I can as-

certain, is the tree there described. It grows to a moderate size—say 30 or 40 feet in height, has slightly drooping branches, with opposite lanceolate leaves, and is in full flower at the end of February, when it presents a handsome appearance; the flowers being largish in size, dull-red and yellowish in colour, and dragon-mouth in form, with three drooping and two erect petals; the calyx gamosepalous.

F. S. GOWSE.

Mathurda, N. W. P.,
February 25, 1875.

Query.

Can any reader of the *Antiquary* favour me with the scientific names of—

(1.) The *Kine* tree. This is a large tree common in the North Konkan. It has a dark heart-wood, sometimes fraudulently substituted for blackwood.

(2.) *Khurdasaf*. This is a small oilseed belonging, I rather fancy, to the order Compositæ, much grown upon the lofty plateaux of the Mâwals, and also in the Konkan, especially by the forest tribes.

W. F. SINCLAIR.

BOOK NOTICES.

RELIGIOUS AND MORAL SENTIMENTS freely translated from Indian Writers, by J. Muir, D.C.L., LL.D., F.R.S. Edinburgh, 1874. (12mo, pp. viii. and 33.)

This pamphlet contains part of a much larger collection of maxims which the gifted author is preparing for translation into prose. Of the seventy-two published, fifty-eight have already appeared in these pages (*Ind. Ant.* vol. III, pp. 182, 241, 335 ff.). In the appendix Dr. Muir has added faithful prose versions of all the passages, "with the view of obviating the suspicion," he says, "which some may entertain, that in the metrical versions I have embellished the sentiments of the Indian writers, or imparted to them a closer resemblance to their Biblical counterparts than the tenor of the originals will justify."

The following are the additional sentiments:—

28. *Narrow and large heartedness*. Panchatantra V. 38 (and in other books); conf. Luke, x. 29 ff.:

Small souls inquire "Belongs this man
To our own race, or class, or clan?"

But larger-hearted men embrace
As brothers all the human race.

The next is analogous to that given (vol. III. p. 183) from the *Mahâbhârata*, III. 13445, and will remind the reader of Coleridge's verse,—"He prayeth well who loveth well," &c.

43. *Austerities and rites are unavailing without purity*. Vṛiddha Chānakya, XV. 1:—

Those men alone the secret know
Which everlasting bliss will bring
Whose hearts with pity overflow,
And love to every living thing:—
Not those a beggar's garb who wear,
With ashes smeared, and matted hair.

The following three are closely related in idea:—

49. *The gods give wisdom to those whom they favour, and conversely*. Mahâbh. V. 1222 and II. 2679 ff.:

The gods no club, like cowherds, wield
To guard the man they deign to shield:
On those to whom they grace will show
Their understanding sound bestow;

But rob of sense and insight all
Of whom their wrath decrees the fall.
These wretched men, their mind deranged,
See all they see distorted, changed;
For good to them as evil looms,
And folly wisdom's form assumes.

Verse 2679, as the author remarks, "reminds us of the well-known Latin adage, '*Quos Deus vult perdere prius dementat*.' The same thought is stated in the following Greek lines, quoted by Grotius in his *Annotations* on the *Epistle to the Romans*, xi. 8:—

ὅταν γὰρ ὀργὴ δαιμόνων βλάβῃ τινά,
τούτῳ τὸ πρῶτον ἐξουσιεῖται φρονῶν
τὸν νοῦν τὸν ἐσθλόν, εἰς δὲ τῆς χειρὸς τρέπει
γνώμην, ἐν' εἰδῇ μηδὲν ὡς ἀμαρτάνει.

Compare *Eccl.* vii. 1, 3, 4, and 13; and *Rom.* xi. 18. Also *1 Sam.* ii. 25. The converse is expressed in the *Mahâbh.* V. 1222"—given in the first four lines above.

50. *A doomed man is killed by anything*. Mahâbh. VII. 429:—

When men are doomed without respite,
Even straws like thunderbolts will smite.

51. *The same*. Mahâbh. XII. 7607:—

A man until his hour arrives,
Though pierced by hundred darts, survives;
While he whose hour of death is nigh
Touched only by a straw will die.

61. *Men love enjoyment, not virtue, &c.* Subhasitârnava, 43:—

In virtue men have small delight;
To them her fruits alone are dear;
The fruits of sin they hate and fear,
But sin pursue with all their might.

62. *Effects of habitual sin and virtue respectively*. Mahâbh. V. 1242-3. (Conf. Matt. xii. 43 ff., 2 Tim. iii. 13):—

Sin practised oft,—experience shows,—
Men's understanding steals at length;
And understanding gone, the strength
Of sin unchecked resistless grows.

But virtue ever practised lends
The understanding firmer sway;
And understanding day by day
More widely virtue's rule extends.

63. *Secret sin not unobserved.* Manu, VIII. 84 (conf. Mahābh. I. 3015; Manu VIII. 91):—

"None sees me," so, when bent on sin,
The fool imagines, vainly bold;
For gods his evil deeds behold—
The soul, too, sees,—the man within.

The following maxim will be recognized as very different in its teaching from anything Biblical, and it is on one of the points that differentiate Christianity from other systems.

64. *Hopelessness of reclaiming the bad.* Bhāminivilāsa, I. 93:—

Whoe'er the bad by kindness tries
To gain,—but vainly ploughs the skies,
The viewless wind with water laves,
And paints a picture on the waves.

The criminal law does not quite recognize the next as teaching the whole truth.

68. *Sin removed by repentance.* Manu, XI. 229-231:—

Whenever men with inward pain
And self-reproach their sins confess,
And steadfast, never more transgress,
Their souls are cleansed from every stain;
As serpents shed their worn-out skins,
These men are freed from cast-off sins.

69. *Noble Characters.* Sāhityadarpana, 322:—

A man whom wealth has never spoiled,
A youth by reckless vice unsoiled,
A ruler wakeful,—self-controlled,
Be these among the great enrolled.

70. *The prosperity of others not to be envied.* Mahābhārata, XII. 3830-1:—

On thee to smile though fortune never deign,
Her favourites' happier lot with calmness bear;
For prudent men from wealth they do not share,
But others' own, enjoyment ever gain.

71. *The saint should patiently await the time of his departure.* Manu, VI. 45, and Mahābh. XII. 8929 (conf. Job, xiv. 14):—

Let not the hermit long for death,
Nor cling to this terrestrial state;
As slaves their master's summons wait,
So let him, called, resign his breath.

The next and last was well worth quoting on account of the parallel the lines offer to Horace's well-known verse—*Odes*, IV. ix. 25 ff.

72. "*Vixere fortes ante Agamemnona*," &c. Bilhana in Sārṅgadhara Paddhati, Sāmānyakavipramā, 13 (12):—

Without a bard his deeds to sing
Can any prince be known to fame?
Of old lived many a valiant king
Of whom we know not even the name!

Comment is needless: the sentiments are rendered with great fidelity into easy verses, that will be read with much more interest than any mere prose version, however terse and pithy.

A portion of the preface has already been given (pp. 70-81). In it Dr. Muir observes that "it is worthy of remark how many more parallels to what have been commonly regarded as exclusively and peculiarly Christian maxims and precepts are presented by Indian than by Greek and Roman literature." Greek and Roman literature, however, is largely historical, and it is principally to philosophical writers and poets we must look for moral maxims. And the whole body of such classical authors who lived before the influence of Christianity began to tell on Roman thought, and whose works have come down to us, ought first to be compared in extent with the huge tomes of Sanskrit philosophy and mythology; for, the larger the field over which the human mind has exercised its energies, the more traces may naturally be expected of its ethical beliefs. And secondly, is it not a mistake to suppose that sentiments such as those versified by Dr. Muir are to be regarded as exclusively and peculiarly Christian? If the Bible were to be looked on merely as a revelation of certain moral truths, it might be startling to find many of them anticipated in other quarters. But the case is very different: there were ethics before there were Christian ethics, and, as has been well remarked, "it would be a grievous deficiency" if Christianity, "as regards the whole anterior world except the Jewish, stood in relation to nothing which men had thought, or felt, or hoped, or believed; with no other co-efficient but the Jewish, and resting on no broader historic basis than that would supply." Christianity accepts these moral maxims, these presentiments of the truth, as being, so far as they are entitled to have weight, confirmations of it, witnessing to its suitableness to the moral wants and aspirations of humanity. But the goodliest maxim possesses no vital power save in its coherence to a body of truth. Such sayings as these collected by Dr. Muir, or by Von Bohlen (*Das Alte Indien*, vol. I. p. 364), abound in every code of morals, but they want the coherence which peculiarly distinguishes the ethical system of the Bible. As Lactantius remarks (*Inst. Div.* vii. 7): "Nullam sectam fuisse tam deviam, nec philosophorum quendam tam inanem, qui non viderit aliquid e vero. Quodsi extitisset aliquis, qui veritatem, sparsam per singulos, per sectas

diffusam, colligeret in unum, et redigeret in corpus, is profecto non dissentiret a nobis. Sed hoc nemo facere, nisi veri peritus ac sciens, potest: verum autem non nisi ejus scire est, qui sit doctus a Deo."

But the Christian Scriptures, while necessarily exhibiting a theory of morality, differing however in its completeness and unity from that of any other system, present themselves not as a revelation of morals, but of life and power, bridging over the gulf between the saying and the acting out of noble sentiments, and claiming to be able to transform even the bad.

LA LANGUE ET LA LITTÉRATURE HINDOUSTANIES EN 1874. Revue Annuelle. Par M. Garcin de Tassy, Membre de l'Institut, Professeur à l'École spéciale des langues orientales vivantes, &c. (Paris: Maisonneuve & Cie., 1875.)

We welcome with much pleasure the latest number of this interesting annual review, which M. Garcin de Tassy has compiled for a long series of years with such regularity and assiduity as to deserve the thanks not only of his own pupils, for whom it appears to be chiefly designed, but even of people in India who wish to possess a compact account of the chief publications issued, and of the literary movements which have occurred during the past year, connected with the Hindustāni language.

It is well known that for several years a contest has been going on in the upper provinces of India, where Urdu and Hindi are most current, as to which of these two rival idioms deserves the preference. The illustrious professor continues to defend Urdu against Hindi, and adduces authorities to support his opinion. There is no doubt that whatever part Government has taken, or may in future take, with reference to these two languages, its influence can never extend further than its own documents, and that those who have hitherto used Hindi in the Devanāgarī character, or Urdu in the Persian, will continue to do so in spite of any Government orders to the contrary. Such things must be decided by the people themselves.

Besides extracts from Indian newspapers concerning the rivalry of the sister idioms, the review contains others on the present state of literary composition, chiefly poetry, and accounts of literary societies such as the Aligarh Institute, and the Anjuman of the Panjāb, which held a meeting called *Mushā'ara* when pieces of original Urdu poetry were read by their authors under the presidency of Mr. Holroyd, the Director of Public Instruction, and under the patronage of the Panjāb Government.

Of the books published during the past year, the most notable are the *Tarikh-i Hindustān*, or History of India, by Munshi Muhammad Zukā-ullah Khān, at present Professor in the Muir College at Allahābād; *Faṣṣa i Hāmid*, the romantic adventures of Hāmed, by Sayyid Ghulām Haydar Khān, who is pointed out by the Native press as one of the best authors of India; *Tibb-i Rahim*, "the medicine of Rahim," containing 540 pages, and which has been adopted as a text-book by the Medical College of Lāhor. The other works are of minor importance, or mere translations from the English, and a few are controversial works of small bulk published as usual both on the Muhammadan and on the Christian side.

It appears that the fines lately inflicted on some booksellers of Lāhor for dealing in obscene books have so frightened the rest, that Pandit Krishṇa Lal, a member of the Literary Society of the Panjāb, who was desirous to buy some books he required, says he could not in all the shops he visited find anything but almanacks, or works referring to laws and regulations.

"India together with Burmah possessed in 1873 not less than 478 journals; namely, 255 in the Native languages, 151 in English, and 67 bilingual ones, i.e. English and vernacular. In Bombay there were more than in the Bengal Presidency, as the former had 118 and the latter only 99. There were 84 in Madras, and 73 in the N. W. Provinces, 40 in the Panjāb, and only 3 in Rāj-pūtānā."

Besides the old journals in Urdu, nearly twenty new ones are enumerated this year, but the most remarkable must be the *Shams varāḥār*, "Sun of the day," edited by Mirza Abdulali at Cabul, as that place never before produced anything like a newspaper,—an evident pioneer of civilization, to which even Afghanistan must shortly open. In that turbulent country neither authors nor patrons of literature seem to exist, but in India we have several Native princes who take a lively interest in the advancement of the country; the Mahārājas of Patiala, of Jaypur, of Kāshmir, and of Travankor are mentioned as founders of schools and encouragers of literature.

According to his usual custom, the venerable professor terminates his review for the year with a necrology, which consists, happily, of only four names:—H. H. Azimshāh Bahādūr, prince of Arkat, who died at the age of 72; Rāja Kālī Krishṇa Bahādūr died at Banāras on the 18th April, aged 70; our lamented townsman Dr. Bhāu Dāji on May 30; and Bābu Pyāri Mohan Bānārji, November 10th, 1874.

E. R.

GLIMPSES OF OLD INDIA AS SEEN THROUGH THE PAGES OF MANU.

BY THE HON'BLE MR. JUSTICE J. B. PHEAR, CALCUTTA.

The scheme of the *Dharma Śāstra*, which we commonly term the *Institutes of Manu*, is as follows:—The divine sages (whoever they may have been) approach Manu, described as the greatest and most sublime of mortals, as he is reclining absorbed in the contemplation of God, and ask him to apprise them of the sacred laws which are to be observed by all classes in their several degrees, and also the duties of the mixed classes. It is evident that an advanced stage of social development must have been reached before a request of such a shape as this could have been preferred.

Manu at once proceeds to explain the creation of the world, commencing with a description of the nature of God, then narrating the production, or manifestation in a corporeal form, of Brahma, who first made the heaven above, and the earth beneath; and afterwards the great soul, consciousness, and the five perceptions,* altogether seven divine principles.

He goes on to say that Brahma assigned to all creatures distinct names, distinct acts, and distinct occupations, as they had been revealed in the pre-existing *Veda*; next that he milked out the three primordial *Vedas* from fire, air, and the Sun; gave divisions to time, distinguished between right and wrong, and assigned to every vital soul occupation and quality, which remained to it for ever through all forms of existence. In these passages, as they stand in Sir W. Jones's version of Manu, there is no little inconsistency; and the last of them assumes the doctrine of transmigration of souls, which is not expressly enunciated until the end of the *Śāstra*. But by the kindness of Bāhu Rājendralāla Mitra I have been furnished with a translation of the 28th śloka, which under the gloss of Kullūka Bhaṭṭa amounts merely to a declaration of the permanency of species in animal nature, whatever be the specific character of the soul which animates the individual.

Manu next declares that Brahma, having made all creatures and him, Manu, was absorbed in the Supreme Spirit; and he concludes by saying that Brahma enacted the code of laws, and taught it to him: that he, Manu,

taught it to Bhṛigu, and that Bhṛigu would repeat it to the sages.

Thereupon, Bhṛigu takes up the discourse and gives a fresh dissertation on the scheme or method of creation and on natural philosophy, in which is manifested some knowledge of the revolution of the Moon and of the Earth: and a curious speculation on the relation between ether the cause of sound, air the cause of scents and touch, light, water, and earth. This ended, Bhṛigu addresses himself to the enunciation of the *Śāstra* in eleven chapters.

The contrivance thus adopted for giving an ante-creation authority to the law, and to make out that it is the word of God dating from before all time, is not without ingenuity. But, by strange inadvertence, both Manu and Bhṛigu betray the, relatively speaking, modern character of their stand-point, by appealing to the authority of the wise (p. 3, 17)†, and to the recognized validity of good usage based on immemorial customs (15, 110). In truth, it is not difficult to perceive, even through the English translation, that the *Dharma Śāstra* of Manu, as we now have it, is the work of many hands, done at various dates. Interpolations, repetitions, and additions seem to be apparent in all parts of the book. Its value, however, in regard to my present purpose is not greatly affected by this circumstance; for it probably may be assumed, without much risk of error, that inasmuch as the character of the book is dogmatic, and not in any degree historical, the facts of society which are disclosed in it, and which sustain the fabric of instruction and commandment, did not materially differ from those which the last compiler or editor saw around him. I shall therefore suppose that such a picture of civilization and conditions of society as can be got from its pages will more or less correspond with a real original, and may be taken as rudely representing an India of a comparatively early period.

The philosophy of the time to which the book may be thus referred, with respect to the origin of all things, is a strange mixture of refined abstraction and absurdity. Returning to the first page, we find that Manu

* Smelling, hearing, seeing, feeling, tasting.

† The figures in these references are respectively the

number of the page and verse in the quarto edition of Sir W. Jones's *Translation of Manu*, 1794.

describes the creation of the world, thus (p. 1, 5):—

"This universe existed only in darkness, imperceptible, undefinable, undiscoverable, undiscovered, as it were wholly immersed in sleep.

"Then the self-existing power, himself undiscerned but making this world discernible, with five elements and other principles appeared with undiminished glory, dispelling the gloom.

"He, whom the mind alone can perceive, whose essence eludes the external organs, who has no visible parts, who exists from eternity, even He, the soul of all beings, whom no being can comprehend, shone forth in person.

"He, having willed to produce various beings from his own divine substance, first with a thought created the waters, and placed in them a productive seed.

"That seed became an egg bright as gold, blazing like the luminary, with a thousand beams; and in that egg he was born himself, Brahma, the great forefather of all spirits.

"From that which is, the first cause, not the object of sense, existing, not existing, without beginning or end, was produced the divine male, famed in all worlds under the appellation of Brahma."

In these perhaps somewhat laboured passages Manu taught that God, the Author and Origin of all things, is to be conceived of as the great First Cause, a spiritual being, self-existent alone from eternity to eternity, without form or parts, incomprehensible and unknowable to man; and that in him the universe was involved as it were an idea, before it was caused by himself to be a discernible reality.

According to the foregoing account the Creator commenced the work of evolving or manifesting the world by willing the production of the waters from his own divine immaterial substance; upon them he developed himself, from the same substance, into the male form Brahma, the great forefather of all spirits, cognizable by man and famed in all worlds.

Brahma, after pausing a year on the waters,* proceeded with the work of creation in a course which seems at first limited to the production of certain abstract principles, or perhaps germs, of a metaphysical and moral kind. Manu's

narrative, however, at this stage, is far from being clear. As has been already remarked, he makes Brahma assign (p. 4, 21) "to all creatures distinct names, distinct acts, and distinct occupations, as they had been revealed in the pre-existing *Veda*," without any previous mention of either the creatures themselves or the *Vedas*; for it is in the succeeding verses that he first says, "Brahma, the supreme ruler, created an assemblage of inferior deities with divine attributes and pure souls, and prescribed the sacrifice from the beginning." And "from fire and from the Sun he milked out the three primordial *Vedas*, named *Rig*, *Yajus*, and *Saman*, for the due performance of the sacrifice." After this, again, he states that Brahma "gave being to time and the divisions of time, to the stars also, and to the planets, to rivers, oceans, and mountains, to level plains and to uneven valleys." Then follows the establishment by Brahma of certain other metaphysical principles and moral qualities. And lastly (p. 5, 31), "that the human race might be multiplied, he caused the Brâhman, the Kshatriya, the Vaisya, and the Śûdra to proceed from his mouth, his arm, his thigh, and his foot," and this having been effected, he brought about the production from himself of Manu, or, to use Manu's own words, of "me the framer of all this world."

Manu next goes on to say:—"It was I who, desirous of giving birth to a race of men, performed very difficult religious duties, and first produced ten lords of created beings, eminent in holiness, Marichi, Atri, &c. They, abundant in glory, produced seven other Manus, together with deities," great sages, genii, giants, savages, demons, serpents, snakes, birds of prey, separate companies of Pitris or progenitors of mankind, meteorological phenomena of all kinds, comets and luminaries, apes, fish, birds, cattle, deer, men, ravenous beasts, insects. "Thus," Manu proceeds, "was this whole assemblage of stationary and moveable bodies framed by those high-minded beings, through the force of their own devotion, and at my command, with separate actions allotted to each. Whatever act is ordained for each of those creatures here below, I will now declare to you, together with their order in respect to birth."

* For which reason he is sometimes termed *Nirâyana*, moving on the waters."

i.e. according to Kullûka's gloss "the spirit of God

And accordingly a very short abstract of natural history follows.

It is worthy of remark that the ten lords, whom Manu here says he produced as the origin of the human race, are to this day recognized as Hindu law-writers of authority; and maxims attributed to six or eight of them are constantly quoted and relied upon in our law-courts. Most of them too, if not all, are even mentioned in the *Vedas*! The compiler of the *Dharma Śāstra*, or at any rate the author of this passage, thus writing in the name of Manu, furnishes strong evidence of his work being published at a time posterior to the age of these sages,—indeed so long posterior that he could venture to speak of them as the first created of human beings. Also the creation, which Manu here asserts he effected, seems inconsistent with the prior creation effected by Brahma—though I believe that there are paṇḍits learned enough to find an explanation—and is especially irreconcilable with the apparently previous production by Brahma of the Brāhmaṇa, the Kṣatriya, the Vaiśya, and the Śūdra. It seems certain that there is more than one interpolation at this part of the introductory chapter; and it is not quite easy to determine which is the earlier doctrine in the conflict. Considerations, however, which may hereafter be referred to, lead to the conclusion that the caste creation is of the later date.

After the dissertation upon the animals comes this passage (verse 51), apparently in immediate relation with the 33rd verse, which produced Manu:—"He whose powers are incomprehensible, having thus created both me and this universe, was again absorbed in the Supreme Spirit, changing the time of energy for the time of repose."

Six verses devoted to an almost unintelligible discussion of the effect of Brahma's repose seem also to be by a different hand, and finally Manu says:—"He (Brahma), having enacted this code of laws himself, taught it fully to me in the beginning; afterwards I taught to Marichi and the other holy sages." This "Bhrigu" (one of the ten sages) "will repeat the divine code to you without intermission; for that sage learned from me to recite the whole of it."

At this point the cosmogony of the *Institutes* ought naturally to terminate; but Bhrigu, taking up the narrative from Manu, gives a supple-

ment to it, and then enunciates in great detail the whole body of the divine law, directory even of personal acts and conduct for everyday life.

The Hindu philosophers of Manu's time evidently felt the difficulty of passing from the abstract or spiritual God, which alone satisfied the intellect, to the personal agent, and ruler, who was apparently needed for the creation and the sustaining of the material universe. The first part of the exigency was satisfied by the temporary manifestation of Brahma, and the second by the creation of subordinate deities (or as we might term them archangels) to watch over and have charge of the several departments (so to speak) of the world. These are (p. 135, 96; p. 159, 4; p. 200, 86) spoken of as eight in number, the guardian deities of the world, or chief guardian deities, and so on. And indirectly their several functions are described in Manu's ninth book (p. 284). Besides these, there were inferior (p. 60, 72; p. 62, 84, &c.; p. 73, 164; p. 62, 81; p. 77, 193) deities and spirits; and the quasi-deified great progenitors of mankind.

The sole object of worship, however, was the one God revealed in the *Vedas*; all others were but created beings. The *Dharma Śāstra* is careful to leave no room for doubt on this point (p. 356, 85). "Of all duties the principal is to acquire from the *Upanishads* a true knowledge of one Supreme God: that is the most exalted of all sciences, because it ensures immortality. In this life, indeed, as well as the next, the study of the *Veda* to acquire a knowledge of God is held the most efficacious of duties in procuring felicity to man; for in the knowledge and adoration of one God, which the *Veda* teaches, all the rules of good conduct are comprised."

The *Veda* was declared to be the direct (p. 18, 11, and p. 357, 94) revelation of God (Śruti), which could not have been reached by mere human faculties, and of supreme authority. It was to be viewed as the (p. 358, 97) sole source of all knowledge, secular as well as divine, containing everything necessary or possible for man to know. All outside it, or not derived from it in the *Dharma Śāstra* by the perfect wisdom of Manu, was human, vain, and false, and would soon perish (p. 357, 96, and p. 358). Belief and knowledge of the *Veda* would

bring man near to the divine nature even in this world, and to beatitude in the next; while unbelief was deadly sin; and whoever, in reliance upon heretical books, questioned the divine authority of the revealed *Veda* and of the *Dharma Śāstra* was to be treated as an atheist, and driven from the society of the virtuous (p. 18, 11).

The jealous care with which the study of the *Veda* was reserved to those privileged to use it, and the reverence with which it was to be approached and taught, accorded naturally with the sacred and exalted character thus ascribed to it. It was the especial function of the Brāhmaṇa to master, to dwell upon, and to study the holy book; the two other twice-born classes, however, were also privileged to have direct access to it. The strictest precautions were taken against the possibility of any free interpretations being arrived at even by these (p. 32, 116). Self-teaching was forbidden, under penalty of the severest future punishment. And only those who sought knowledge with a right (p. 31) spirit were allowed to receive instruction. It was sin to teach for pay (p. 72, 156); knowledge should be imparted gratuitously, as the gift of God, to those only who were worthy of it. A Śūdra might not be taught either temporal or divine knowledge, on pain of damnation both of teacher and pupil (p. 99, 80). And if by any means a Śūdra acquired knowledge of the *Veda*, and presumed to teach, his pupil became involved in deadly sin (p. 72, 156). A woman also might not be taught. It was settled law that she had no business with the texts of the *Veda* (p. 247, 18).

Throughout the earlier part, and even in the body, of the *Institutes*, the *Dharma Śāstra* of Manu is spoken of as the inspired exponent of the *Vedas* almost of equal (see p. 18 *et al.*) authority with them, and constituting with them the repository of all knowledge; but in the last chapter of the book is a passage (p. 359, 109) wherein the *Vedāṅgas*, *Mīmāṃsā*, *Nyāya*, *Dharma Śāstra*, and *Purāṇas* are called the extended branches of the *Vedas*; and it is expressly directed that questions not capable of being solved by reference to the revealed law of the *Veda* shall be settled by a synod of Brāhmaṇas properly instructed and informed in this body of learning. In this list the *Dharma Śāstra*, probably of Manu, occupies only the fourth place. Also

in another (p. 207, 139) passage Manu and Vāsiṣṭha are spoken of as former law-givers, and it can hardly be doubted that by the time the *Institutes* had taken their present form, there existed a philosophical and religious literature which was not all considered equally orthodox. There were also "heretical books" (p. 18, 11, and p. 72, 156), and even Śūdra teachers, which called for authoritative denunciation.

The religion inculcated in the *Dharma Śāstra*, which probably we may safely assume to have been the active religion of the better-educated classes, was in its essential features of an advanced and exalted character. The outlines of it may be sketched as follows:—After death comes a future state of existence, for which there is a region of bliss, and regions of torment. (See p. 74, 172, *et ubique*, and p. 165, 53.) In one verse (p. 99, 87) twenty-one different hells are named. Every man's future destination is matter of individual responsibility solely. Alone he must traverse the valley of the shadow of death. "In his passage to the next world," says the *Śāstra* (p. 119, 239), "neither his father nor his mother, nor his wife nor his son, nor his kinsmen will remain in his company: his virtue alone will adhere to him. Single is each man born, single he dies; single he receives the reward of his good, and single the punishment of his evil deeds; when he leaves his corpse like a log, or a lump of clay, on the ground, his kindred retire with averted faces; but his virtue accompanies his soul. Continually, therefore, by degrees let him collect virtue, for the sake of securing an inseparable companion; since with virtue for his guide he will traverse a gloom how hard to be traversed!"

Happiness or misery in the next world follow by a strict law of retribution as a consequence of the life spent in this (p. 345, and p. 355, 81). Merit and right conduct meet with immediate reward. The righteous man enters at once upon everlasting beatitude (p. 352, 54). The evil doer passes for a space into the regions of torment, and having there undergone his assigned punishment is born again into this world in some living form, animal or human, varying with the circumstances of his former misdoings.

The mode in which the process of transition is explained, involves some minute analysis. The living body is constituted (p. 346, 12) of a

material substance animated with a vital spirit; to these a conscious or reasonable soul is united on the birth of every living being, and the supreme spirit or divine essence pervades all. On death the material body is dissolved, and the two essences, reasonable soul and supreme spirit, closely scrutinize and examine the vital soul; if it turn out that the vital spirit had practised virtue for the most part and vice in a small degree, then the two essences remain with it, and, clothed in a new body of pure material, enjoy delight in celestial abodes. But if the vital spirit had generally been addicted to vice and seldom attended to virtue, then it will be deserted by the pure elements, and in a body formed for the purpose will suffer the pains to which Yama will doom it, and then again the two essences will rejoin it.

Yama is the one of the eight guardian deities or principal angels, whose province it is to award to every ill-doer the due punishment to be undergone by him in the next world. He is the minister of God, meting out terminable and purifying correction to the offenders against divine law in strict accordance with the measure of their offences.

The merit, right conduct, or virtue which alone will carry man to the region of bliss is continually the subject of expatiation throughout the *Institutes*. A few references will serve to indicate its nature. It must be founded on the knowledge of one God (p. 356). The essence of conduct is the motive which prompts it (p. 119, 234). Truthfulness, devotion, and purity of thought, word and deed transcend all ceremonial cleansing or washings of water (p. 136, 106, *et seq.*). Vice is worse than death (p. 165, 53). Intellectual service of God is better than sacrifice or oblations (p. 91, 22 *et seq.*), for scriptural knowledge is the root of every ceremonial observance. A true believer can extract good out of evil (p. 47, 238). By forgiveness of injuries the learned (in the scriptures) are purified (p. 136, 107). Courtesy and consideration for others are repeatedly enjoined (p. 106, 138). "Let a man say what is true, but let him say what is pleasing; let him speak no disagreeable truth, nor let him speak agreeable falsehood; this is a primeval rule. Let him say 'well and good,' or let him say 'well' only, but let him not maintain fruitless enmity and altercation with 'any man.'" Again, we find the importance of

perseverance (p. 106, 137, p. 109, 159) and self-dependence strongly insisted upon, restraint of the passions constantly enforced (see pp. 29 and 30), and the practice of the virtues, gentleness (p. 37, 159), diffidence, modesty, and humility commanded (p. 38, 163). "The scorned may sleep with pleasure; with pleasure may he awake; with pleasure may he pass through this life; but the scorner utterly perishes." And the effects of sin committed may be got rid of by true repentance (p. 339, 228). "By open confession, by repentance, by devotion, and by reading the scripture, a sinner may be released from his guilt. * * In proportion as a man who has committed a sin shall truly and voluntarily confess it, so far is he disengaged from that offence like a snake from his slough; and in proportion as his heart sincerely loathes his evil deed, so far shall his vital spirit be freed from the taint of it. If he commit sin, and actually repent, that sin shall be removed from him; but if he merely say: 'I will sin thus no more,' he can only be released by an actual abstinence from guilt. Thus revolving in his mind the certainty of retribution in a future state, let him be constantly good in thoughts, words, and actions."

If the Hindu religious writers had stopped at this stage, and left the form and manner of the retribution in the hands of God's minister, Yama, their system would have ranked deservedly high. But, fortunately for the historical inquirer, they were not mere speculative philosophers or moralists. It was their object to develop a code which should be operative and have practical effect upon society. Therefore, Manu seemingly felt it necessary, in order to influence men's conduct, to declare that the vital spirit after death will be united to a material body very sensitive of pain, and to attach to every class of transgression a specific material punishment. I will not now follow him into the details of this portion of his task, for they are very loathsome and repulsive. In the course of it, however, he takes us very much behind the scenes of everyday life, and I shall speak of the apparent results presently. He also discloses the leading feature of Hindu philosophy, namely, its realism. The consequence is almost invariably knit to the antecedent by a sort of *lex talionis*. So far as possible the punishment is made analogous to, or cor-

respondent with, the evil action. The man who permits an unworthy guest to be present at a *śrāddha* which he celebrates (p. 68, 133), must swallow in the next world as many red-hot iron balls as the mouthfuls swallowed at the feast by that guest. If one, through ignorance of the law (p. 110, 167), sheds blood from the body of a Brāhmaṇa not engaged in battle, as many particles of dust as the blood shall roll up from the ground, for so many years shall the shedder of that blood be mangled by other animals in the next birth. The action inevitably brings its own retribution. Another remarkable feature of the system is the transfer of merit and demerit (p. 171, 94). If one man wrongs another, he takes upon himself the sins of the latter, while the injured man on his side acquires all the good conduct which the injurer had previously stored up for a future life. And a singular advantage or efficacy was attributed to just punishment in this world at the hands of the civil power: for Manu says (p. 230, 318) "men who have committed offences and have received from kings the punishment due to them go pure to heaven, and become as clear as those who have done well."

Although the *Institutes* afford us many items of information relative to the existing state of society, in view of which they were composed, these are insufficient to enable us to reproduce it as a whole. We get but glimpses of it. Amongst other things, the people are represented as made up of (p. 289, 4) four principal classes or groups—termed the *pure* castes—namely, the Brāhmaṇ, the Kshatriya, the Vaiśya, and the Śūdra. The separate creation attributed to each of these may be taken to indicate that, so far back as popular tradition reached, these classes had maintained themselves in substance hereditarily distinct, and also separate in occupation, pursuits, and employment.

The separation of the people into these four classes was certainly an existing fact even in the Vedic period, for it is mentioned in the hymn to Puruṣa,—one of the hymns of the *Rig Veda*, where each of the classes is allegorically represented as constituting that part of Puruṣa (or Brahma), from which Manu afterwards, and later still other *Smṛitis* and *Purāṇas*, said that they were severally produced. In the *Mahābhārata*, however, there is a passage

which asserts expressly that originally there was no distinction of castes, the existing distribution having arisen out of differences of character and occupation,—a view of the matter which is, no doubt, substantially correct. In the *Viṣṇu Purāṇa*, too, occur several instances of the different sons of one parent coming to be of different castes by reason of their several occupations. The whole of this interesting topic is exhausted by Dr. Muir (*Sanskrit Texts*, vol. I. 2nd ed. p. 160), who says "we may fairly conclude that the separate origination of the four castes was far from being an article of belief universally received by Indian antiquity." So far as I can judge from the English version of the *Institutes*, the passage in which Manu appears to ascribe each class to a separate creation is a comparatively late interpolation, inconsistent with the general tenor of the original text. The division of the social functions of these classes is described for us in Manu's *Dharma Śāstra* several times over (p. 12, 88 *et seq.* and p. 286), plainly pictured from the reality; and doubtless there was then no memory of any different state of things. The description itself discloses an advanced stage of civilization, and we have not the means of judging how that situation had been arrived at. However, it may probably not be unreasonable to assume that the Brāhmaṇs were a sacerdotal class, sprung originally from one family, or group of families, like the tribe of Levites among the Jews; the Kshatriyas an hereditary aristocracy, the rulers and administrators of the land, somewhat resembling the Patrician Order at Rome, or that which the nobles of the feudal times came to be; the Vaiśyas all the remaining free Āryans, who—engaged in the more respectable and well-to-do occupations of working life, such as trade, agriculture, &c. in fact the capitalists of a primitive society—succeeded in maintaining privilege of birth; and the Śūdras, a comparatively servile class, composed of all lower ranks of Āryans, and perhaps of subject aborigines. It may not here be out of place to remark that as the stream of Āryan immigration into India flowed on from the north-west, it no doubt, in course of time, became more and more intermixed with the existing population of the country, and from this obtained, among other things, the ingredient of the dark skin. The result of the intermixture

would be reckoned as Āryan, or rather as Hindu, in comparison with the aborigines, and a gradation of colour and features would be effected such as is now to be seen in passing from Peshāwar along the Gangetic trough to Orissa. Also, by survival of the fittest, the darker tints accompanying an Āryan physiognomy would come to prevail in the tracts of the tropical deltas. But it is not likely that any large proportion of this more extended growth would be recognized as belonging to the older privileged orders. It seems more reasonable to suppose that it would remain, as a rule, undistinguished from the general mass of the unprivileged, and would go to swell the body of Śūdras. There appears to have been, too, a lower social stratum still (p. 268, 179), not dignified by the designation of caste, the members of which were slaves to the Śūdras. Or, perhaps, some Śūdras managed to attain to a position of wealth and freedom, and then could command the services of other Śūdras, as if themselves actually members of a higher class. Besides these four principal castes, and in a sense comprehended within them, was a very considerable body of so-called mixed castes (p. 290 *et seq.*), which, Manu is at great pains to explain, arose from the irregular intermingling of the others: but he betrays the true cause of their formation and perpetuation when he says that they may all be known by their occupations (p. 294, 40). We see that in all countries during the earlier stages of civilization there is a universal tendency in the various businesses and occupations to be hereditary; as the father is, so is the son, and it is seldom that any one takes up, or indeed has the opportunity of engaging in, a business different from that followed by his father; marriages also commonly take place within the limits of the families which pursue the same avocation, and every man is known or spoken of by the name of his calling. From this cause such designations as Smith, Pinder, Hayward, Pedlar, Taylor, Glover, and so on, became surnames in England. In India, even at this day, the family has not yet disintegrated into its constituent members. Individuals are held together in a family, and families are connected together in groups by the operation of forces of conservation which have long ceased to exist in the Western Āryan races. Given a community of origin, whether personal, local, or other, suffi-

ciently marked to constitute a characteristic, and a community of occupation or situation, the elements are present out of which a caste with its own peculiar customs and traditions will grow; and castes do in this way originate and grow under our eyes, even in these modern times. It is obvious that the mixed castes of Manu are essentially different in kind from the great tribal castes of Brāhmanas, Kshatriyas, &c.; they are, in truth, rather sub-castes than mixed castes, and bear the same relation to the tribal castes which the genera of plants in systematic botany do to the classes. Also, it seems probable that the very reasons which gave rise to the sub-caste designation would generally in the long run cause it to prevail over the tribal. With the great body of the people the family and its employment must have been of a greatly more distinguishing importance than the tribe. It would be mainly the upper classes of society who, wanting in the particular discriminating element furnished by the employment, would keep up the distinction of tribe.

It might perhaps be imagined that the religious rite of institution, and the privilege attached to its observance of wearing the thread, which marked off the three Āryan tribal divisions from the Śūdras, and constituted the quality of twice-born, would have been clung to and never lost. Nevertheless, this was not so: for Manu himself says (p. 294, 43): "The following races" (afterwards naming them) "of Kshatriyas, by their omission of holy rites, and by seeing no Brāhmanas, have gradually sunk among men to the lowest of the four classes." And, again, he says three verses lower: "Those sons of the twice-born who are said to be degraded, and who are considered as low-born, shall subsist only by such employments as the twice-born despise." He also discloses the fact that the converse process was going on in his time, when he declares (p. 294, 42) "By the force of extreme devotion and of exalted fathers, all of them" (the issue of certain specified marriages) "may rise to high birth;" and in another passage (p. 297, 64): "Should the tribe sprung from a Brāhmaṇ by a Śūdra woman produce children by the marriages of its women with other Brāhmanas, the low tribe shall be raised to the highest in the seventh generation." It was a principal object with Manu to glorify the Brāhmanas, and to preserve the

purity of the twice-born classes by restraining mixed marriages as far as possible; it therefore lay upon him to make out that cross-breeding, so to speak, was the sole and efficient cause of all caste distinction. But it seems apparent, on his own showing, that there were natural forces in action under which sub-castes gradually arose, grew, and altered their relations *inter se*. The course which society had hitherto run can be readily imagined: there had been a period of time during which the Âryans had developed into three broad hereditary classes,—a sacerdotal class, an aristocracy, and a free plebeian class, while a fourth class comprised all who were foreign, subject, or not free. But the development did not end here; this arrangement could not possess finality. For instance, an ever-increasing exclusive aristocracy could not possibly, in its integrity, maintain its place, and accordingly the Kshatriyas had, as we may infer from the passage just now quoted, early broken down. Something of the like kind had also evidently happened to the Brâhmanas, for many passages of the *Institutes* (p. 59, p. 64, 89, 3, and p. 299) are directed to the saving of class to Brâhmanas, as well as to the members of the other two twice-born classes, who under emergency might betake themselves to secular or abnormal pursuits. Then followed a second period, when the small sub-castes had come to be the real practical social divisions, and the former broader divisions were comparatively disregarded. Indeed, as time went on, these became obliterated or merged into one; on the one hand, sub-castes dropped wholly out of them, as in the case of Kshatriyas mentioned by Manu, and were indistinguishable by privilege from the sub-castes of the Śûdra class. On the other hand, sub-castes, which managed to usurp or gain privilege, took care to attach themselves to the class of highest reputation, namely, the Brâhmanas. There was no longer cause effective to keep separate the three privileged classes of Brâhmanas, Kshatriyas, Vaiśyas, when each had been broken into sub-castes, and neither of them, except in a degree the Brâhman, retained any exclusive area of employment. All that was then left was the line of demarcation between those who claimed to be privileged and those who were not privileged. In the end all the

former came to be reckoned Brâhmanas, and all the latter Śûdras, the Kshatriyas and Vaiśyas having disappeared as distinct classes. And this pretty well represents the state of things subsisting in India in the present day.

A very large portion of the *Dharma Śāstra* is devoted to the instruction of Brâhmanas in their proper daily conduct throughout the whole period of life, from the cradle to the grave; and probably the picture thus sketched out may rightly be taken to represent the ideal perfection of man of that day. It is not, however, altogether a pleasant one to contemplate. Although humanity, truthfulness, honesty, cleanliness and chastity* are in so many words inculcated as the cardinal duties incumbent upon all men, the Lawgiver is not content to leave the understanding and discharge of them to his hearers' judgment; he prescribes the utmost details of conduct to which they lead, and thus takes occasion to make us acquainted with much that is gross and offensive. Indeed, the discipline and petty observances to which the model Brâhman was subjected during the two first stages of his life, i. e. the periods of studentship and of housekeeping, must have gone far to make him ready to embrace the asceticism which was proscribed to him as his last stage, had he been there left to himself; but, unfortunately, Manu followed him to the jungle and made his last days even a worse state of slavery to mortifying rule than his previous life had been. It is almost impossible to believe that any general body of men, such as a whole tribal division of the people, could have actually lived their lives in any close conformity with the minute injunctions of the *Dharma Śāstra*: and with the conscientious the failure to carry out the practice enjoined must have greatly weakened the desire and endeavour to realize the principle. The result which was apparently aimed at, irrespective of the means, is instructive. The child of the Brâhman class was to be placed under a spiritual preceptor, whom he should reverence almost as a deity, certainly with a respect superior to that which he owed to his own parents (p. 46, 225 ff.). "A teacher of the Veda is the image of God, a natural father the image of Brahma, a mother the image of the earth. . . . Let every man constantly do what may please his parents, and on all occasions

* p. 296, 63, the Five Commandments of Manu.

what may please his preceptor: when those three are satisfied, his whole course of devotion is accomplished. Due reverence to those three is considered as the highest devotion, and without their approbation he must perform no other duty. . . . He who neglects not those three when he becomes a housekeeper will ultimately obtain dominion over the three worlds, and, his body being irradiated like a god, he will enjoy supreme bliss in heaven. By honouring his mother he gains this world, by honouring his father the intermediate, and by assiduous attention to his preceptor even the world of Brahma." With his preceptor the student remained a varying time, but at any rate until he was prepared to keep house on his own account. During the whole of this time he was bound to submit himself to a Spartan discipline (p. 45, 220). He rose before the sun, his diet was spare, and only such as he could obtain by begging (p. 40, 183). He was to abstain from every possible form of physical enjoyment (p. 39, 175 *et seq.*), and to keep aloof from all the pleasures of the world. In the presence of his preceptor his demeanour was to be downcast and humble (p. 45, 218). "As he who digs deep with a spade comes to a spring of water, so the student, who humbly serves his teacher, attains the knowledge which lies deep in his teacher's mind." And when the days of studentship are ended, and the young Brâhman has entered upon housekeeping duties (p. 97, 63), he must cultivate and maintain an impassive and dignified bearing; he must be strictly pure and formal in his daily life; he must, before all things, be liberal in his hospitality to Brâhmanas (p. 60, 72, p. 64 *et seq.*, p. 92, 29) and uninvited guests, and to those dependent on him, for duty's sake. To these must be postponed his own familiar friends, because kindness rendered on the incitement of friendship or selfishness brings no fruit in the next world (p. 66, 113, p. 69, 139). His very salutations must be in conventional words, according to the class of the person greeted. Finally (p. 145, 1, p. 156), "having thus remained in the order of a housekeeper, as the law ordains, let the twice-born man who had before completed his studentship dwell in a forest, his faith being firm, and his organs wholly subdued. When the father of a family perceives his muscles become flaccid and his hair grey, and sees the child

of his child, then let him seek refuge in a forest."

We have thus presented to us in a sad and gloomy aspect that which the Hindu Âryan considered the perfection of human life. If there is any truth in the modern theory, that the tone of man's thought and the working of his imaginative faculties is largely influenced by the natural phenomena amid which the cradle of his race was placed, we ought to attribute to the Sanskrit people original experiences akin to those of their Teutonic cousins, rather than those which conferred upon the Âryans of Southern Europe their present characteristic light-hearted levity.*

At the time of the *Institutes*, Sanskrit, according to a gloss of Kullûka, was not generally understood by men, and seemingly not at all by women (p. 33, 123). Probably, if it ever was a vernacular in the polished and scientifically constructed form under which we know it, it had then ceased to be so. No doubt, the language commonly spoken varied with the district, and was a dialect of a Sanskrit original.

There were, however, foreign languages prevalent, non-Âryan, i.e. distinguished from that of the Âryans, and it is very noteworthy that Manu seems to reckon some who spoke these as descendants, though out-castes, from the four classes" (p. 294, 45).

That the people were poor, even as compared with Hindus of the present day, is abundantly clear. For a while their industry was mainly pastoral, and their acquired wealth took the shape of herds. In one portion of the *Institutes*, when property is spoken of (as when a present to a Brâhman is mentioned, or when a partition between brothers is to be effected), cattle has the principal place and importance attributed to it. But at a later period agriculture and trade acquired considerable development. There is a Deuteronomy in the *Dharma Śāstra*, and a comparison of the two expositions brings this advance to view.

The people lived in large families under one roof, or in one dwelling-place, as they do now; and there is little indication of luxury about them. Talking birds were to be found in a king's palace (p. 177, 149), and a wealthy householder might have a riding-horse or carriage and ornaments (p. 264, 150:) "A field, or gold, a jewel,

* See Buckle, *Taine*, &c.

a cow, or a horse, an umbrella, a pair of sandals, a stool, corn, cloths, or even any very excellent vegetable" (p. 48, 246) is the list of articles any one of which was a fitting present to be made by a young man to his preceptor at the close of his student's career, and it may therefore be imagined to comprehend most of the valuables of the time. The *Dharma Śāstra* nowhere contains any direct allusion to music or to any of the fine arts, and in this respect is in strong contrast with the Hebrew Bible. Gold-workers, however, are spoken of; and rings and jewels are slightly alluded to. In one passage (p. 133, 129) the hand of an artist is said to be always pure, an evident concession to the exigencies of his employment. Manners were very primitive, and not a little coarse. Sexual sensuality must have prevailed largely, if one may judge from the repeated prohibitions of it to be met with in the *Śāstra* under every variety of form. Clothing was scanty, and it was necessary to authoritatively command the student to appear decently apparelled in the presence of his preceptor (p. 42, 193). Domestic utensils seem to have been of the most simple kind, of various metals, i.e. of copper, iron, brass, pewter, tin, and lead, and generally of earthenware (p. 137, 114), but the latter was not glazed. Leather even was used (p. 138, 119). Minute directions are given by Manu for the cleansing of these articles; and the natural inference to be drawn from the character of these is that great simplicity of life prevailed in all classes.

From Manu's prescription for a feast proper to be given to Brāhmanas on the occasion of a *śrāddha*, we learn what in those times was considered choice food, and also the order of serving the viands (p. 80, 225). The most prominent dish in the first course was a large bowl of rice; this was accompanied by soup (or broth) and vegetables, and was eaten with milk and curds, clarified butter and honey. After this came spiced puddings, milky messes of various sorts, roots of herbs and ripe fruits; and then savoury meats and sweet-smelling or aromatic drinks. Venison, mutton, the flesh of wild boars, of wild buffaloes, and even of rhinoceros, was greatly esteemed as food (p. 86, 268 *et seq.*). And it seems pretty clear that in earlier days there was no restraint upon eating meat; though in the time of Manu it was not considered law-

ful to eat any flesh which had not been sacrificed (p. 116, 213). Manu says (p. 120, 48) "flesh-meat cannot be procured without injury to animals, and the slaughter of animals obstructs the path to beatitude; from flesh-meat therefore let man abstain." But we must probably look beyond the religious precept in order to find an effective cause for the abstinence of a whole people.

Rural life, as opposed to town life, has great prominence given to it in the *Institutes*. The village, girt with a belt of common pasture-ground, and cultivated *khetts* beyond, constituted the unit of agricultural occupation or possession (p. 220, 237). The land within the village boundaries belonged generally to the village; thus we have Manu saying (p. 221, 245): "If a contest arise between two villages concerning a boundary, let the king ascertain the limits in the month of Jaiśthā, when the landmarks are seen more distinctly;" and Kālluka's gloss 'or landholders' after the words 'two villages' serves only to make this fact more plain; doubtless, in his time some villages had lost their independent communal character, and come to be reckoned as the property of an individual owner, and hence the necessity for the enlargement of the sentence. But the arable fields, wells, tanks, gardens, and houses were appropriated to the different householders of the village and treated as their private property (p. 223, 262). The *mandirs* and public pools or tanks stood on the common ground (p. 222, 248).

The subjection of women to men was almost servile in its character (p. 141, 147, p. 245, &c.). Manu himself declares over and over again that "woman is never fit for independence," though the general tendency to look upon them as mere chattels met with reprehension from him; and he found himself obliged to forbid their being bought (p. 58, 52, p. 257, 98, but *vide* p. 216, 204 and 205) and sold in marriage, and (p. 192, 29) vindicated such rights of property as they had against spoliation at the hands of the male members of the family. A woman was liable to be personally chastised like a child by her husband (p. 228, 299), and was forbidden to be instructed. She is represented in the *Śāstra* as completely animal in her passions, and entirely unable to resist temptation (p. 247, 15); wherefore she must be guarded, amused, and gratified at home, so that she may not go astray (p. 58,

55 *et seq.*). She is not to be trusted with a secret (p. 177, 150), and gets no benefit from either the instructional or the expiatory portions of scripture (p. 247, 18), so that a bad woman is bad indeed.

Nevertheless, there seems to have been a nearer approach to social intercourse between men and women than is the case now. And courtesy of demeanour towards the latter was enjoined. Way should be made for a woman when she is met in a road (p. 35, 138). And at meal-time precedence, even before guests, should be given to a bride and to a damsel (p. 66, 114). This spirit seems hardly to have survived to the present day. At the village tanks and wells, and at the stand-pipes of Calcutta, the women coming for water are kept in the background until the men who may be there have served themselves—a marked contrast in the eye of the foreigner to that which occurs at the fountains and pumps of the country villages in Europe.

It is noticeable that a great quantity of hair was not considered a beauty in a woman (p. 52, 8 and 10), and that the flexuous motion of a young elephant's limbs was thought the model of graceful gait! Hair with a red tinge was ranked as a deformity.

Marriage was a contract of mutual fidelity (p. 258, 101) and was indissoluble (p. 251, 46), and the essence of it did not consist in the ceremony, but in the husband's gift. Marriages of adults, dictated by inclination on both sides, could take place; p. 219, 224; p. 256; p. 257, 93 and 95), though Manu also says (p. 25, 794) "a man aged thirty years may marry a girl of twelve dear to his heart, or a man of twenty-four years a damsel of eight: but if the duties would otherwise be impeded let him marry immediately." A woman was forbidden to remarry (p. 143, 162). Indeed, with the system of the joint family and agnatic succession remarriage of the woman is impossible, except with a brother or near relative of her late husband. Manu, however, admits that it had formerly been different.† Men, on the other hand, could marry more than once (p. 53, 12). Several passages in the *Dharma Śāstra* (p. 144, 168; p. 255, 80) would support the inference that the second wife could only be taken when the first was dead, or when an

event had happened upon the occurrence of which the husband could supersede her; but there are also other passages which certainly authorize polygamy (p. 256, 85 and 86), at any rate if the wives other than the principal wife are of a lower class. And throughout the book it is assumed that a man of the twice-born classes may have a legitimate wife of a lower class in addition to the wife of his own class, a fact which of itself almost demonstrates that Manu's attempt at maintaining a rigid line of demarcation between each of the four classes was most hollow. A different ceremony was prescribed for the marriage according as the union was that of a Brāhmaṇa man with a Kshatriya woman, a Kshatriya man with a Vaiśya woman, and so on (p. 57, 43 *et seq.*). And unless the nuptial rites were blameless, it could not be expected that the offspring would be so (p. 56, 42).

Although Manu in several passages combated the general tendency to reckon woman as a mere chattel, he held to the doctrine that the husband was the marital owner of the wife, and from this by elaborate scholastic reasoning he deduced the conclusion that all her children are necessarily her husband's, whoever the real father might have been (p. 251, 48 *et seq.*). And upon the same ground, whatever a woman earns during marriage is acquired by her for the benefit of her husband (p. 242, 416); although it is at the same time abundantly clear that a woman might have separate property of her own derived from other sources (p. 58, 52), at any rate after her husband's death, which the king was bound to assure to her in default of efficient protectors at home.

The three so-called twice-born classes, that is, the pure Āryans of unmixed descent, endeavoured, so far as was possible, to maintain their race-distinction by observance of the solemn rite of institution (p. 21, 36 to p. 25, 68). It consisted in the investiture of the recipient with a girdle, leathern mantle, staff, sacrificial cord, and *lotā*, hallowed by the *gayatri*, or mystic sentence from the *Veda*, (p. 27, 77), and other ceremonies (p. 22, 38). Unless this rite was performed in the case of a priest before the sixteenth year, of a soldier before the twenty-second, and of a merchant before the twenty-fourth, it could not properly be performed at

† p. 253, 66, and see p. 73, 166.

all; and the uninvested youth became an out-cast, degraded from the *gayatri* and despised; for the second birth, or peculiar stamp, of the superior race consisted in this institution (p. 25, 68) by force of an ordinance of revealed law (p. 39, 172). "The young man is on a level with a Śūdra before his new birth from the revealed scripture." Women secured their second birth in a similar manner. "The same ceremonies," says Mann (p. 25, 66), "must be duly performed for women at the same age and in the same order, that the body may be made perfect; but, without any texts from the *Veda*, the nuptial ceremony is considered as the complete institution of women, ordained for them in the *Veda*, together with reverence to their husbands, dwelling first in their father's family, the business of the house, and attention to sacred fire." Kullūka's gloss excepts from the ceremonies for women "that of the sacrificial thread," and probably this exception corresponded with an increased inferiority in the situation of women subsequently to the time when the original passage was written. The omission of the *Vedic* texts was the natural consequence of the exclusion of women from the direct application of the revealed scripture.

The observance of this rite seems to be historic, or rather memorial, in its intrinsic characteristics. It is analogous in this respect to the Passover of the Jews; and we are carried back by it to a time when the Āryan entered the land a stranger or new-comer, with his loins girt and staff in hand, clad in leathern jacket, the pioneer of a new civilization. How or when the rite sprang into being, or grew into political and religious importance, we have not the materials in Mann wherefrom to form a judgment. But it is possibly not without significance that in the leading passages which describe the ceremony we find the three classes spoken of or referred to quite as often as priest, soldier, and merchant as Brāhmaṇ, Kshatriya, and Vaiśya. In the time of the writer they could scarcely have been viewed as the subjects of separate creation.

Funeral ceremonies and feasts receive most elaborate treatment in the *Dharma Śāstra* (p. 67, p. 80, 226) and we thus become acquainted with the surprising extent to which priestcraft

was carried, and the great hold upon the people which the Brāhmaṇ class succeeded in obtaining by reason of their practical monopoly of learning and education.

The people in general must have been exceedingly credulous and superstitious; for the authors of the *Śāstra* themselves give sanction to many ignorant beliefs. They taught (p. 21, 30) that there were fortunate and unfortunate days of the moon, lucky and unlucky hours, and that the stars exercised good or bad influences according to their qualities. Also that an auspicious name was valuable (p. 21, 33, p. 52, 9 and 10). To sacred texts and to gems of certain kinds extraordinary virtues were ascribed (p. 27, 76 to 85). They were prescribed as charms (p. 187, 217 and 218) and as antidotes to poison. Thunder and lightning were looked upon as portents (p. 103, 115, p. 102, 106). Signs and omens were to be regarded. On the appearance of a beast used in agriculture, a frog, a cat, a dog, a snake, an ichneumon, or a rat, the reading of the *Veda* must be intermitted for a day and a night (p. 105, 26): and much more of the like kind. Strangely enough, any one who observed a rainbow in the sky was forbidden to draw the attention of any other person to it!

There is little or nothing which deserves the name of natural science in the *Institutes*: an interpolation in the narrative of the creation (p. 6, 43 to 49) pretends to be a general classification of animals and vegetables, but it is of a very crude character and betrays no real observation of fact. Gold and silver were supposed to be products of fire and water combined (p. 137, 113). The celestial phenomena go almost without notice. The only exception is to be found in the following remarkable passage, which occurs seemingly as an interpolation in Bṛigu's preface (p. 9, 64 *et seq.*): "eighteen *nimeshas** are one *kashṭha*, thirty *kashṭhas* one *kala*, thirty *kalas* one *muhurta*, and just so many *muhurtas* let mankind consider as the duration of their day and night. The sun causes the distribution of day and night both divine and human: night being for the repose of beings, and day for their exertion. A month is a day and a night of the Pitris, and the division being into equal halves; the half beginning from the

* 1 *nimesha* = a little more than $\frac{1}{2}$ ".

1 *kashṭha* = $3\frac{1}{2}$ ".

1 *kala* = $1\frac{1}{2}$ ".

1 *muhurta* = $\frac{1}{2}$ of an hour.

all moon is their day for actions, and that beginning from the new-moon is their night for slumber. A year is a day and a night of the gods, and again their division is this: their day is the northern, and their night the southern, course of the sun." One can hardly avoid the inference that the writer of this was aware of the relative motions of the sun, moon, and earth; and also of the earth's revolution about her axis. The effort at a systematic scale of time-measures is very noteworthy, the more so as later in the book (p. 206, 131 *et seq.*), and also entirely out of place, appears a similar, though very much longer, scale of weights based on an imaginary atomic unit, namely, "the very small mote which may be discerned in a sunbeam passing through a lattice, and is the least visible quantity" (p. 206, 132). The hereditary transmission of disease had been observed (p. 52, 7). And in Bhṛigu's account of the creation there is an attempt at explaining the phenomena of sound, light, and so on. From intellect called into action by the will of Brahman emerges the subtle ether to which philosophers ascribe the quality of sound (p. 10, 75); from ether transmuted in form proceeds air, the vehicle of all scents, and endued with the quality of touch. Then from air changed rises light, making objects visible, and having the quality of figure; and from light changed comes water, with the quality of taste; and from water earth, with the quality of smell. Besides this there is a curious speculation upon a peculiar branch of physiology, which is, however, nothing better than pure guess-work (p. 57, 49).

The government of the country, and the general political administration, was in the hands of the hereditary aristocracy, i.e. the Kshatriya class. There was an absolute king of this class who reigned of divine right (p. 159, 3, and p. 160, 8), and was represented as being formed (p. 135, 96; p. 159, 4) by the ruler of the universe out of particles drawn from the eight guardian deities, and as therefore pure and surpassing all mortals in glory. "Even though a child (p. 160, 8), he must not be treated lightly, from the idea that he is a mere mortal: no; he is a powerful divinity who appears in a human shape." His highest attribute is criminal justice (p. 162, 28, and p. 191, 16), which is again in fact itself a deity. He governed by the aid of a council (p. 163, 36; p. 165, 54) of

seven or eight sworn ministers. But (p. 163, 37; p. 166, 58) it was right that he should be influenced by the opinions of discreet Brāhmanas, and in particular he ought to take the most distinguished of them all as his confidential adviser. Manu is very earnest and specific in warning a king against the common vices of those possessed of irresponsible power, and it is somewhat startling to find *hunting* characterized as one of the four most pernicious vices in the set which love of pleasure occasions (p. 165, 50). The stability of the royal authority does not appear to have been great, notwithstanding the divinity of the king's person; for Manu enjoins extraordinary precautions for the purpose both of ensuring the security of the king's residence (p. 167, 69 *et seq.*), and of guarding him from possible violence or treachery on the part of his immediate attendants (p. 187, 217 to 223). The daily routine of the royal business is given in some detail by Manu, broken by a dissertation upon military and other matters. It may be abstracted thus:—The king rose in the last watch of the night, and after making oblations, and paying due respect to the priests, he entered his audience-hall decently splendid" (p. 177, 145). There he showed himself to the people for their gratification, and then retired with his ministers to some private place, in order to consult with them unobserved, and special care was taken that no one should be within hearing who was considered "apt to betray secret counsel." Having thus consulted with his ministers upon all the public matters demanding his attention, he next took his exercise; and then after bathing he entered at noon his private apartments for the purpose of taking food. The meal over, he diverted himself with his women in the recesses of his palace; and having thus "idled a reasonable time" he again addressed himself to public affairs. Probably, his apparel within the palace was somewhat scanty, for it is said at this point that "he dressed himself completely" and proceeded to review his troops. At sunset he performed some religious duties, after which he received in a private inner apartment informers and emissaries employed by him to gather intelligence secretly. And this business being despatched, he went, "attended by women, to the inmost recess of his mansion for the sake of his evening meal. There, having a second

time eaten a little, and having been recreated with musical strains," he went to rest early, in order that he might rise refreshed from his labour.

Of the ministers the two principal persons were the Foreign Minister and the Commander-in-Chief (p. 167, 64, 65). Home affairs appear to have been chiefly transacted by the king in person. The qualifications for the post of foreign minister and the principles of foreign policy are dwelt upon in the *Institutes* at great length, and the art of war is expounded very fully. Even the order of the march and the best mode of commencing a general action are laid down. Some very prudent advice is given relative to the conduct of a war; actual fighting was to be resorted to only as the last expedient: "Let him," says Mann (p. 184, 197), speaking of the king, "secretly bring over to his party all such as he can safely bring over; let him be informed of all that his enemies are doing; and, when a fortunate moment is offered by heaven, let him give battle, pushing on to conquest, and abandoning fear: yet he should be more sedulous to reduce his enemies by negotiation, by well-applied gifts, and by creating divisions, using either all or some of those methods, than by hazarding at any time a decisive action, since victory or defeat are not surely foreseen on either side when two armies engage in the field: let the king then avoid a pitched battle; but should there be no means of applying the three expedients, let him, after due preparation, fight so valiantly that his enemy may be totally routed." Mann goes on (p. 184, 201) to enjoin that in a conquered country the religion should be respected, the established laws maintained, and the rights of property so far as possible be undisturbed. It is evident that war and the enlargement of dominion formed a subject which had engaged the attention and been studied successfully by men of advanced intelligence in the time of Mann.

It is unfortunate that the executive administration of the internal affairs of the kingdom did not offer the like attraction to the author or compiler of the *Institutes*. We hardly get the smallest glimpse of the Civil Service system. Detachments of troops commanded by trustworthy officers were quartered in military stations over the country, in order to protect the people

(p. 173, 114). Besides these, there was a civil head or governor to every town, or rather village, with its district; and over a group of ten towns or villages was a superior officer to whom these were subordinate; higher again was the lord of one hundred towns, and so on. To the head of a village was assigned for his maintenance the food, drink, wood and other articles which were by law daily due from the inhabitants to the king (p. 173, 118). The head of a group of ten villages was entitled to "the produce of two plough lands" (that is, of so much land as required two ploughs for its cultivation); "the lord of twenty that of five plough lands; the lord of a hundred that of a village or small town; the lord of a thousand that of a large town" (p. 174, 119). It is by no means clear what were the exact functions of the officers in this graded system. No doubt it devolved upon them to maintain general peace and order (p. 173, 116), but what sort of staff of police force each had at his command for this purpose is not apparent. The affairs of the townships and districts (whatever this word 'affairs' may comprehend) were transacted by them (p. 174, 120). And probably the king's revenue was collected by them. Seemingly this machinery was somewhat of a rough and ready character, and approached that patriarchal form which is generally very delightful to the governors, and imagined by them to be perfectly adapted to secure the happiness and welfare of the governed. Wide latitude of discretion, only controlled by the will of a superior officer, did not, however, in those days lead to the most happy results. Mann himself says (p. 174, 123): "Since the servants of the king whom he has appointed guardians of districts are generally knaves, who seize what belongs to other men, from such knaves let him defend his people; from such evil-minded servants as wring wealth from subjects* attending them on business, let the king confiscate all the possessions, and banish them from his realm." With the object of keeping the local officers to their duties, and protecting the people from oppression at their hands, there was an entirely separate body of inspectors, and also in every large town a superintendent of affairs (p. 174, 121), elevated in rank, formed in power, distinguished "as a planet amongst stars,"—a sort of exalted commissioner of division.

* Since come to be *rayats*.

It may with much probability be inferred from data which are to be found in the instructions for carrying on war, and which I have not quoted, that the kingdoms (so to speak) in view of which the compilers of Manu wrote, more nearly resembled large *rajas* than separate countries in the modern sense. Indeed, it is very noteworthy that the foregoing sketch corresponds closely with the state of things which prevailed quite in historical times among the non-Āryan people, the Kollis and Oraons of the Chutiyā Nāgpur plateau. There, as the consequence of the conditions under which each village was founded, * it had a priestly head (*pahaw*), a secular head (*manḍar* or *mahton*), and often a third officer, all hereditary, and entitled by right of office to a certain portion of land, the origin of the existing Bhuniya tenures. The *mahton*, to use Manu's language, transacted the affairs of the village. Three or four, or more, of these villages in a group were subordinated to the *mahton* of most influence within them under the name of *manbi*, and ultimately the biggest *manbi* in a district became the *rija* or king, the ordinary people of the villages paying him a sort of rent in kind, or money, and the headmen doing public service in consideration of their free land.

To return to Manu. The king's revenue was derived from several sources. In the first place, certain rations of food, drink, &c. were rendered to the king daily by every township (p. 178, 118; p. 229, 307), and constituted the maintenance of the head or governor of the town or village. There was also a land revenue amounting to an eighth, or a sixth, or a twelfth part of the grain produce, and a sixth part of most other things (p. 175, 130); also one-fiftieth part of certain capital stock, as cattle, gems, gold, silver, &c. In times of emergency (p. 304, 118) the revenue might be raised to even one-fourth of the produce. Besides these there were *ad valorem* taxes upon marketable (p. 240, 338) commodities, ferry and other tolls, market dues, &c., and a small poll-tax upon the classes who paid nothing else. And fines imposed in the administration of criminal justice went to increase the public revenue.

But if the information which we can gather from Manu relative to the civil and fiscal administration of the country is meagre, the case is quite otherwise with regard to the department

of municipal law. In addition to a divine code of morals, the compilers of the *Institutes* have given us a criminal and a civil law at great length, and have also afforded us some insight into the mode in which it was administered. There was a High Court (p. 190, 10), commonly called the Court of Brahmi, constituted of a Chief Judge appointed by the king, and three Assessors. The Chief Judge might be drawn from any of the twice-born classes, though he ought the more properly to be a Brāhmaṇ (p. 191, 20), but the king was prohibited from appointing a Śūdra to this office. The trial was had in open court, and was effected by the examination of witnesses in the presence of the parties concerned (p. 199, 79). In civil suits the plaintiff first made his complaint, and then the defendant was summoned to answer it. It was apparently incumbent upon the plaintiff to put in a written plaint (p. 196, 58), and if he delayed to do so, he was liable to be corporally punished, or to be fined. In a suit to recover property, if the defendant denied the truth of the plaintiff's claim, then the latter had to establish it by the mouths of three witnesses (p. 196, 60) at least who could speak to the facts. In the event (p. 195, 53, 54 *et seq.*) of the plaintiff, by his witnesses or otherwise, varying the case upon which he based his suit, or asserting confused and contradictory facts, or disclaiming a witness whom he had intentionally called, or calling a witness who was not present at the time and place of the occurrence to which he was to depose, or improperly conversing with his witnesses, or refusing to answer a proper question, and so on, the judge was bound to declare him non-suited. On the other hand, (p. 196, 58) if the defendant did not plead within six weeks of being summoned, he was condemned for default. And (p. 196, 59) both a plaintiff who made a false claim, and a defendant who falsely denied the truth of a claim, were alike fined double the amount of the claim. After the examination of the witnesses, the judge heard argument on both sides (p. 193, 3, and p. 194, 44); and, finally, having arrived at the truth of the facts by a most careful consideration of the demeanour of the parties (p. 192, 25 and 26) and their witnesses, and of their testimony, he decided the matter in contest strictly according to the law which was applicable to the case (p. 192, 24).

* Colonel Dalton's *Ethnology of Bengal*, and Act II. of 1863, Bengal Code.

This procedure and doctrine as to the duty of this court leaves hardly anything to be desired, and seems to be indicative of an advanced stage of civilization, a high appreciation of established law, and a considerable amount of juridical culture. It is to be feared, however, that the integrity of the kings, judges, and the veracity of litigants and witnesses was not of the same exalted character. Passage after passage in the *Institutes* is devoted to impressing upon the king and his officers the awful nature of the obligation to judge the people righteously, and the tremendous consequences here and hereafter of disregarding it. And whole pages are exhausted in contrasting the fates of those who are the witnesses of truth and the witnesses of falsehood. Thus we have (p. 199, 81)—“A witness who gives evidence with truth shall attain exalted seats of beatitude above, and the highest fame here below: such testimony is revered by Brahmā himself. The witness who speaks falsely shall be fast bound in the cords of Varuṇa, and be wholly deprived of power during a hundred transmigrations: let mankind, therefore, give no false testimony. By truth is a witness cleared from sin; by truth is justice advanced: truth must therefore be spoken by witnesses of every class. The soul itself is its own witness; the soul itself is its own refuge: offend not thy conscious soul, the supreme eternal witness of man! The sinful have said in their hearts, ‘None sees us.’ Yes, the gods distinctly see them, and so does the spirit within their breasts. The guardian deities of the firmament, of the earth, of the waters, of the human heart, of the moon, of the sun and fire, of punishment after death, of the winds, of night, of both twilights, and of justice, perfectly know the state of all spirits clothed with bodies.” And in calling upon a Śūdra to give his evidence the judge is enjoined to exhort him to truth in a homily of some length, which contains passages such as the following:—“The fruit of every virtuous act which thou hast done, O good man, since thy birth, shall depart from thee to dogs if thou deviate in speech from the truth” (p. 201, 90 *et seq.*). “Naked and shorn, tormented with hunger and thirst, and deprived of sight, shall the man who gives false evidence go with a potsherd to beg food at the door of his enemy.” “Headlong in utter darkness shall the impious wretch tumble into hell, who, being

interrogated in a judicial inquiry, answers one question falsely.” The standard of truthfulness could hardly have been high where continual exhortation of this kind was needed. And perhaps the effect of this teaching may have been marred by the qualification (p. 202, 103 and 104) that “In some cases a giver of false evidence from a pious motive, even though he know the truth, shall not lose a seat in heaven: such evidence wise men call the speech of the gods. Whenever the death of a man, either of the servile, the commercial, the military, or the sacerdotal class, would be occasioned by true evidence, falsehood may be spoken: it is even preferable to truth,”—a qualification not unknown to tender-hearted British jurymen, though seldom admitted even by them, so dangerous is the doctrine felt to be.

It is worthy of note that in the *Institutes* the creditor is expressly authorized to recover his property (p. 195, 49 and 50), if he can, by his own arm, without having recourse to a court of law, and if on his doing so the original wrongdoer complains, the latter becomes liable to be fined (p. 212, 176), and also (p. 204, 117) that “whenever false evidence has been given in any suit the king must reverse the judgment, and whatever has been done must be considered as undone,” two facts which go far to suggest that the regular action of the courts was not altogether satisfactory in its results. And this seems to be confirmed by the alternative, which it was thought necessary to allow them, of reaching their decision by the short cut of a solemn oath, or of ordeal: “In cases where no witness can be had between two parties opposing each other, the judge may acquire a knowledge of the truth by the oath of the parties, if he cannot perfectly ascertain it” (p. 203, 109). “Or, let him cause the party to hold fire, or to dive under water, or severally to touch the heads of his children and wife. He whom the blazing fire burns not, whom the water soon forces not up, or who meets with no speedy misfortune, must be held veracious in his testimony on oath” (p. 204, 114).

In all this it is more than probable that we have a relatively modern method of pleading and trial superimposed upon a primitive proceeding; for in the next topic to which we come, namely, municipal law, it appears plainly manifest that something of the like kind has taken place,

a new material has been added to, and mixed up with, an old.

The remark has already been made that there is a deuteronomy in the *Institutes*: this does not occur in the shape of an acknowledged second utterance of the law, but by way of interpolation in, and gloss upon, that which was the earlier delivered. It is not easy, without making very large quotations, to show how this is apparent. The original writer had set out with declaring that the whole law was comprised under eighteen titles (p. 189, 3), which he named in order, and "that those eighteen titles of law are settled as the groundwork of all judicial proceeding in this world" (p. 190, 7). This declaration was followed by the due enunciation of the law accordingly, in the course of which the beginning and ending of each title was expressly mentioned in so many words. All this still stands. But subsequent writers have introduced into the body of some of the titles much new matter, supplemental of the old, and have also interpolated between neighbouring titles topics and authoritative statements relevant to neither; and after the last of the titles, *i.e.* Gaming, have added a considerable body of law which could not by any contrivance be built up upon the limited groundwork of the titles, notwithstanding that the author of them had solemnly announced their all-comprehensiveness. It is in many instances amusing to see the shifts in the way of analogy to which the later lawgiver has been reduced in order to connect a matter of law with a particular title; and it is especially instructive to compare the improvements and additions with the meagreness of the code as it must have originally presented itself. The very titles themselves betray the—comparatively speaking—early stage of civilization at which they were framed to represent the entirety of the civil and criminal law. The lending of money on interest, hiring out of a useful chattel, deposit of an article for safe custody, sale of property without title, remuneration for work done by several jointly, recovery of money or goods given for that which is not rendered, wages when work is not done, non-fulfilment of an agreement by a trader, rescission of contract of sale after transfer of subject, dispute between herdsmen and cattle-owners, confusion of boundaries, assault, defamation, robbery with violence, adultery and unchastity,

the relation between husband and wife, inheritance, and gaming, all taken in the narrowest sense, covered every cause of dispute and every form of crime. On the other hand, in that which appears to be added matter, we find the lawgiver dealing with lost property, standard weights, suretyship, market overt, adulteration, liability of master for servant's acts, burglary, cutpurses, injuries done by unskilful physicians, fraudulent goldsmiths and corn-factors, rights of water, detective police, &c. The prison and the pillory come in as new modes of punishment, and by specification of certain forms of imposture and cheating, and of the places in which vice flourishes, we are introduced to a society which had reached an advanced position in the course of development. In short, between the dates of the first and of the final delivery of the law, society had passed from the condition of which the pastoral village is the type, to that of an agricultural community in which town life, with its industries and its vices, has begun its course of growth.

We have a pretty accurate clue in the *Dharma Śāstra* to the general geographical situation of the people for whom it was compiled. In a well-known often-quoted passage it is written (p. 19, 21): "That country which lies between Himavat and Vindhya, to the east of Vinasana and to the west of Prayāga* is celebrated by the title of Madhya-deśa. As far as the Eastern and as far as the Western oceans, between the two mountains just mentioned, lies the tract which the wise have named Aryavarta. That land on which the black antelope naturally grazes is held fit for the performance of sacrifices; but the land of the Mlechhas differs widely from it. Let the three first classes invariably dwell in those before-mentioned countries; but a Śūdra distressed for subsistence may sojourn wherever he chooses." The middle district here spoken of appears to correspond roughly with the Doab of the Ganges and Jamnā, together with the tracts between the latter river and the Sutlej, and was probably the principal centre of Aryan activity. The Aryans had also evidently pushed themselves down the valley of the Ganges as far as the Bay of Bengal on the one side, and down the Indus as far as the Indian Ocean on the other;

* Allahabad.

but they had not progressed far south towards the centre of the Indian Peninsula; and doubtless the Himālayas completely shut them in on the north. Apart from the above-cited express statement, we meet with very few collateral or incidental facts in the *Institutes* calculated to support any inference as to the physical condition of the country occupied by Manu's people. High ground is seldom alluded to. In one place the king is recommended to fix his abode in a champaign country, abounding in grain, and having, if possible, a fortress of mountains (p. 167, 69). On the other hand, the writer more than once displays a familiarity with low-lying lands. The simile "As he who digs deep with a spade comes to a spring of water" bespeaks a prevailing state of things such as obtains in the valley of a great river (p. 45, 218). And the direction (p. 221, 245)—"If a contest arise between two villages concerning a boundary, let the king ascertain the limits in the month of Jyēṣṭha, when the landmarks are seen more distinctly," seems to point to a land which is flooded during the season of the rains. All this accords very well with the supposition that those to whom the *Dharma Śāstra* was addressed lived principally, if not almost exclusively, in the upper half of the Gangetic trough. Although it is stated that the Āryans might dwell anywhere between the two oceans, the Eastern and the Western, and therefore it may be inferred that they had in some degree extended themselves to these limits, still it is very clear that they had little or nothing to do with the sea. "A navigator of the ocean" was the subject of abhorrence (p. 72, 158), and was ranked with a house-burner, a poisoner, and a suborner of perjury. Sea-borne goods are however mentioned; and in a passage of the—com-

paratively speaking—more modern portion of the law relative to the charges which might be made at ferries, and for the conveyance of goods by water, we have: "For a long passage the freight must be proportioned to places and times, but this must be understood of the passages up and down rivers; at sea there can be no settled freight" (p. 241, 406). But the fact seems to be that the Indian Āryans in Manu's age were essentially an inland people, and had not yet reached the shores of Bengal and Orissa. They had been settled long enough to suffice for the growth in different localities of tribes or sub-races respectively marked and distinguished by known characteristics—an element in the development of caste already dwelt upon. Thus the men of the Brahmarshi district (perhaps the neighbourhood of Dehli to the south) had acquired a special reputation for courage, and it is not unlikely that they then represented the oldest and best Aryan blood.* Nepāl (p. 82, 235 and 234, and p. 138, 120) was famous for its blankets; but whether it was reckoned a foreign country or not, or whether the Āryans had obtained any hold over it, there is no information afforded us from which we can judge. There were cities governed by Śūdra kings (p. 96, 61), resembling perhaps a small *vāṇij*, independent of the Āryan, but possessing a co-ordinate civilization. The Āryans themselves must also have been split up into various kingdoms, or *vāṇis*: for in Manu's dissertation on the art of war the king is instructed how to conduct himself in certain contingencies towards neighbouring powers (p. 167, 64), and in the event of his being pressed on all sides by hostile troops he is told to seek the protection of a just and powerful monarch (p. 181, 174).

A LEGEND OF OLD BELGĀM.

BY GILMOUR M'CORKELL, B.A. C.S.

The accompanying popular account of the foundation of Belgām and its subsequent capture by the Musalmān powers, although not historically accurate, may not be without some interest to the student of the early history of the Southern Mahratta Country.

No doubt the Belgām which along with Śāpūr was called Jirṇasītāpura was

what is spoken of further on as Old Belgām, of which we still find the remains of the embankment of the mud fort close to the second milestone on the Dhārward road; and about one mile from Belgām on the Khānāpur road we pass along the bank of a large tank, of which the name was Nāgarakere, and it is, doubtless, identical with the lake of Nāga-

* p. 183, 133; p. 19, 19; and see Cunningham, vol. I. p. 340.

sarovara, given as the scene of the sudden death of king Śānta. Old Belgām is said to have been founded by a Jaina king; but the earliest notice that we have of it is to be found in the Gulhaḷḷi inscription.* It was then (circa A.D. 1160) the chief town of the district known as the Veḷuagrāmma Seventy, and was governed, under the Chālukya kings, by the Kādamba chieftain Śivachitta or Pōrmā-didevā. Shortly after this date it was acquired by the Raṭṭa chieftains, who made it their capital instead of Saundatti. It will be seen that one of these Raṭṭa chieftains, Mallikārjuna by name, is mentioned in the accompanying legend, but it is erroneously stated therein that he was the last of his race to exercise sovereignty; Mr. Fleet's researches show that Mallikārjuna's elder brother, Kārtavīrya IV., with whom Mallikārjuna had been associated in the government as Yuvarāja, was still ruling after Mallikārjuna's death, and that Lakshmidēva II.,† the son of Kārtavīrya IV., enjoyed regal powers before the supremacy of the Raṭṭas ceased. When this event occurred, Belgām, together with the adjoining country, appears to have fallen under the sway of the Yādava kings of Devagiri. What was next the fate of the country is not yet known definitely; further researches on this subject are needed to enable us to complete a sketch of the history of this period.

The legendary account—however far from the truth—of the deposition of the Raṭṭa chieftain Mallikārjuna brings us in the next place to consider the Musalmān period. The first mention of Belgām in Ferishta‡ is under the date A.D. 1375. Asaḍ Khān flourished in the first half of the 16th century, as is shown by the Persian inscription on the mosque which he erected in the Fort of Belgām,§ wherein the date given is equivalent to A. D. 1519; and Ferishta|| states that Belgām was taken from the Rāya of Vijayanagara in A.D. 1471.

The etymology which is given of the name

Belgām is more ingenious than trustworthy; but I would suggest that it is quite within the bounds of possibility that Bel,—which is a corruption of Veḷu or more properly Veṇu,¶ the first portion of the name,—may emblem for us the name of some ancient Jaina king of whom or whose deeds we possess no further record. Veṇu is, in fact, the name of one of the kings of the Yādava race. I advance this opinion with all diffidence, in view of the elaborate explanation and etymology of the name given by Mr. Stokes at p. 18 of his *Historical Account of the Belgam District*.

With respect to the 108 Jain temples, which are said to have been built by the pious king in expiation of the accidental cremation of so many Jaina sages, it cannot now be determined where they stood; but even at the present day within the walls of the Fort of Belgām there are two entire Jaina temples and a priest's house, and, built into the ramparts of the fort, we find many remnants of beautifully carved stones which once undoubtedly adorned the pillars and façades of old Jaina temples.

I cannot at present localize the forest of Anagoḷa, but hope at some future time to be in a position to do so.

Yalūr is a small village lying at the foot of the hill on which is built Yalūrgaḍ, a strong hill-fort lying almost due south of Belgām. The river Sandarāna is in all probability a branch or tributary of the modern Mālaprabhā, which in its early course runs in a southerly direction passing nearly equidistantly between Santi-Bastvāḍ and Yalūrgaḍ.

The Legend.

There was a poet, by name Sarasija-bhavanandana, belonging to the ancient Jaina caste, an inhabitant of Belgām. He has composed in the Old Kanarese language a short history of kings. Having, by means of rhetorical figures and an ornate Sanskrit expression, applied such epithets as ripen as if

* Edited by Mr. J. F. Fleet, B.C.S., in *Jour. Bomb. Br. R. As. Soc.* vol. IX. p. 296.

† Kārtavīrya and his brother Mallikārjuna, sons of Lakshmi Bhupati, are both mentioned in the Belgām inscription dated Śaka 1127 (A.D. 1305); and Lakshmidēva II. in one at Saundatti, dated Ś. 1151 (A.D. 1229). *Conf. Report*

of the *Archæological Survey in the Belgām and Kaledgi Districts*, pp. 2, 12.—ED.

‡ Mr. Stokes' *Historical Account of Belgam*, p. 15.

§ *Ibid.* p. 24. || *Ibid.* pp. 19, 20.

¶ Veṇuagrāma or Veḷuagrāma is the name of Belgām in the inscriptions already referred to.—ED.

they were plentiful grain in the Karpātaka country, he has compiled an account of Belgām. In it we obtain full information of those kings who formerly were, their names, their good qualities, their castes, and the virtuous deeds that they performed. And memorials of the acts which were done by those same kings are to be met with, even in the present day, in Belgām, and are as written below:—

Śāpur and Belgām were formerly collectively called Jirṇasītapura, and there lived there the governor of the city of Sāmanta-paṭṭaṇa, whose name was Kuntamarāya, a Jaina by caste, very religious and compassionate. So the people had great joy and happiness. One day (it happened that) one hundred and eight Jaina sages,—who had come from the South Country into the forest of Anagola, of which the name was formerly Hrasvagiri—remained there all night, because their rules did not permit them to advance a single footstep during the darkness. When this news reached Kuntamarāya, the king, with the expressed assent of his wife Guṇavati, went out to the sages and, having performed respectful obeisance, besought them as follows:—“O mighty saints, take pity upon me and bestow your favour upon me, so that my reign may become famous.” But, as their custom was never to say anything at night, they held no converse with the king. Accordingly the king returned home in great despondency, (and, as he was going,) sparks of fire fell from the torches, and the dry forest was set on fire, and all those sages were burnt to ashes.

On the following day, in the early morning the king again went into the forest and saw that all those Jaina sages had been consumed. When they saw this, both husband and wife were much terrified, and began to consider. Accordingly, there and then, he proposed a plan to Guṇavati, whereby those Jaina sages might attain the state of final emancipation,—as follows: “Let us bring stones and build 108 temples, and, when we have performed worship to them, I shall accomplish the propagation of offspring.” When he had so said, they returned home, and, in accordance with the above plan, he caused to be built 108 Jaina

temples at that very place where there are even at the present day some Jaina temples in the Fort of Belgām. After he had been initiated into the mysteries of the Jaina faith and had reigned for some time, Guṇavati at length became pregnant. And now, although he had been very anxious that his wife should have children, his dread of not having any offspring vanished. On this account he gave to Belgām the name of Vamśapura. Now the word in Marāṭhi for Vamśa is *Bel*. In this manner we arrive at the name Belgām.

Afterwards there lived in Old Belgām, Śānta the son of Kuntama the king of Sāvantavāḍi, famous, deeply learned in the mysteries of the Jaina religion, thoroughly skilled in the worship of the gods of his forefathers, very brave, and lauded by princes who are born in the races of the Sun and Moon, a supporter of the rules of faith of the Kshatriyas, a protector of Jaina sages, very skilful in bestowing on the temples of Jinendra that wealth which consists in courtesans, &c. He had fourteen wives. The chief of these wives, by name Padmavati, was very famous. She had a son by Śānta named Anantavīrya. One day, attended by his retinue of maid-servants, &c., he (Śānta) went to the river Sudarśana near Yalār for the purpose of playing in the water, and in the lake of Nāgasarovara he met his death by a thunderbolt. Then three ministers of state came from Sāvantavāḍi and crowned Anantavīrya king. He also reigned according to the customs of his fathers. One day many sages, among whom Sudarśana was the chief, arrived. When he had made respectful obeisance to them, Anantavīrya inquired concerning his ancestors, and those sages recounted from their *Parāṇas* the above story in which has been related the fate of king Śānta.

Afterwards there was a king of his race and lineage by name Mallikārjuna. During his reign a famous Musalmān by name Asta Khān (Asad Khān) came from Bengal, and, having acquired the kingdom by treachery, he deposed him (Mallikārjuna), overthrew those one hundred and eight temples, and built a fort. Even at the present time we find stones (belonging to those in the Fort).

BIOGRAPHIES OF ĀSVAGOSHA, NĀGARJUNA, ĀRYADEVA, AND VASUBANDHU.

Translated from Vassilief's work on Buddhism, by Miss E. Ingham.

Āsvagosa* (in Chinese *Ma-mine*, 'voice of the horse') was a disciple of the venerable Pārśva. Pārśva, on arriving in Central India from the North, learned that the clergy of that district dared not strike the *Gaṇṭā*,† a privilege, as we know, which had been granted to the religions which prevailed or which had obtained preponderance. The cause of this humiliation was Āsvagosa, who, belonging to the most learned Tīrthikas, had demanded that the Buddhists should not be permitted to strike the *Gaṇṭā* so long as they had not refuted him. Pārśva ordered it to be struck; he entered into discussion with Āsvagosa, and first asked him this simple question:—'What is to be desired in order that the universe may enjoy peace, the sovereign long life, the countries abundance, and that people may no longer have to submit to miseries?' A turn so unexpected, to which it was necessary to reply, according to the laws of discussion, confounded Āsvagosa, and after the meeting he became a disciple of Pārśva, who counselled him to teach Buddhism, and then returned to his native town. Āsvagosa remained in Central India, and made himself celebrated by his superior talents.

It happened that the king of Little Yu-chyi, in Northern India, invaded Magadha, and demanded the cups of Buddha and Āsvagosa to be given up to him. The nobles grumbled against the king because he had set much too high a value on the latter; in order to convince them of their merit, the king took seven horses, and after having starved them for six days, he led them to the place in which Āsvagosa was teaching, and ordered fodder to be given to them, but when the horses heard the preacher they shed tears, and would not eat. Āsvagosa became celebrated because the horses had understood his voice, and because of this he received the name of Āsvagosa (voice of a horse).

2. Nāgarjuna was born in Southern India. He was descended from a Brahmanical family; he was naturally endowed with eminent qualities; and whilst yet a child he taught the four Vedas, each of which contained 40,000

gāthas (each of which is composed of 42 letters or syllables). He travelled into various kingdoms, and learned all the secular sciences, such as astronomy, geography, secret and magical powers; then he entered into friendship with three very distinguished men, and, having obtained power to render himself invisible, he glided with them into royal palaces, where he began to disgrace the women. Their presence was discovered by the print of their feet; the three companions of Nāgarjuna were hewn to pieces, and he himself was saved only by first making a vow to adopt the spiritual state (Buddhist). Accordingly, having arrived on the mountains, at the *stūpa* of Buddha, he uttered his vows, and in ninety days he learned the three *Piṭakas*, the deepest meaning of which he penetrated. Then he began to search for the other *Sūtras*, but he found them nowhere; it was only on the summit of the Snowy Mountains that a very old Bhikṣu gave him *The Sūtra of Mahāyāna*, the depth of the meaning of which he comprehended, without being able to discover the detailed explanations of it. All the opinions of the Tīrthikas and Śramaṇas seemed to him worthless; in his pride he supposed himself a founder of a new religion, and invented new vows and a new costume for his disciples. Then Nāgarāja (King of the Dragons) concentrated himself in him, took him with him to his palace at the bottom of the sea, and showed him there seven deposits of precious objects, with the Vaipulya books and other *Sūtras* of a deep and mystical meaning; Nāgarjuna read them for ninety consecutive days, and then returned to the earth with a casket. There was at this time in Southern India a king who knew very little of the true doctrine; Nāgarjuna, wishing to attract all his attention, appeared before him for seven years with a red flag, and when the king, in course of a prolonged conversation with him, asked him, as a proof of his universal knowledge, to tell him what was going on in heaven, Nāgarjuna declared that there was war between the Asuras and the Devas, and to confirm his words there fell from heaven an arm and some mutilated limbs of the Asuras.

* The biographies of the first three were translated into Chinese under the dynasty of Yao-tzine, A.D. 384-417, by Kumāraśīla (Kumārāsila?); and the last, that of Vasubandhu, appeared under the Chen dynasty (A.D. 557-588),

by the celebrated Chene-ti. From these M. Vassilief derives the following abridged lives (pp. 210-222 of the Russian ed.).

† A sort of bell for calling to religious exercises.

Then the king was convinced, and ten thousand Brāhman gave up wearing their hair in knots (that is to say, they were shaved), and made the vows of perfection (that is, of the spiritual calling). Then Nāgārjuna spread Buddhism widely in Southern India: he humbled the Tīrthikas, and to explain the doctrines of the Mahāyāna he composed the *Upadeśa*, of 100,000 *gāthas*; besides that, he composed *Chyuanse iane fo luo lue*, 'The Sublime Path of Buddha,' consisting of 5,000 *gāthas*; *Da tzu fan bian lue*, 'The Art of Pity,' consisting of 50 *gāthas* (5,000?). It was by means of these that the doctrine of the Mahāyāna spread on all sides in Southern India. Besides these he composed *U sei lue*, 'Meditations on Intrepidity,' in 100,000 *gāthas*.* A Brāhmaṇ who had entered into discussion with him produced a magic pond in the middle of which was a water-lily with a thousand leaves, but Nāgārjuna produced a magic elephant which overturned the pond. At length, upon a chief of the Hīnayāna showing a desire that Nāgārjuna should die, he shut himself up in his solitary chamber and disappeared. For a hundred years temples were raised in his honour in all the kingdoms of India, and people began to worship him as they did Buddha. As his mother had borne him under an *Arjuna* tree, he received the name of Arjuna, and as after that a Nāga (dragon) had taken part in his conversion, the name Nāga was added, whence has resulted the name Nāgārjuna (in Chinese *Lame-chia*, dragon-tree; the Tibetans translate it 'converted by a dragon'). He was the thirteenth patriarch, and administered religion more than three hundred years.†

3. Deva (Āryadeva) was descended from a Brahmanical family of Southern India. He rendered himself celebrated by his general knowledge. There was in his kingdom a golden image of Maheśvara two *sagunes*‡ high; whoever, in asking a favour, turned himself towards it, had his prayer granted in the present life. All who presented themselves were not admitted to the image, but Deva insisted that he should be allowed to enter, and when the angry spirit began to roll his eyes, he pulled one of them out. Another day Maheśvara appeared to him in

a festival and promised him that the people should believe his words. Deva came to the pagoda of Nāgārjuna,§ advanced into the spiritual state, and then began to enlighten the people. But that did not satisfy him; he was possessed with the desire to convert the king himself. For that purpose he went to the bodyguards, and after having gained their attention he asked permission to enter into discussion with some heretics, every one of whom he overcame. Deva composed *Bo-lue erl-chi ping*, 'The Hundred-fold Meditation,' and *Chi bo lue* (400 *gāthas*) for the overthrow of error, but a Tīrthika laid open his stomach and he died. As he had before this given one of his eyes to Maheśvara when he met him at the festival, he remained blind of an eye, and was surnamed Kānadeva.

4. Vasubandhu was born in the kingdom of Purushapura,|| in Northern India. In the history of the god Viṣṇu the following is related:—Viṣṇu was the younger brother of Indra, who had sent him into Jambudvīpa to conquer the Asura: he was born as son to the king Vāsudeva. At this time the Asura existed under the name of Indradamana¶ (conqueror of Indra), a name which he had received because of his war against Indra. In the *Vyākaraṇa** it is said that the Asura asserts that it is not a good thing for people to amuse themselves by giving opposition to the gods who find enjoyment in well doing. This Asura had a sister named Prabhāvatī (sovereign of light), who was very beautiful. The Asura, wishing to injure Viṣṇu, placed his sister in a prominent position, and himself told her that if any one wished to marry her she was to propose that he should seek a quarrel with her brother. Viṣṇu came to this place; he fell in love with Prabhāvatī, and, as all the gods had married daughters of the Asuras, he proposed marriage to her: he was in consequence forced to fight a duel with the Asura. Viṣṇu, as the body of Nārāyaṇa, was invulnerable; the Asura also continued to live though Viṣṇu had cut off his head, hands, and other limbs, which returned anew to their places. The fight continued till night, and the strength of Viṣṇu was beginning to fail, when his wife, fearing lest he should be beaten, took

* We do not now find all these works of Nāgārjuna either in Chinese or Tibetan, though there are others that go under his name.

† This note is found in the Chinese biography.

‡ The 'sagune' is a Russian measure of 6 ft. 9·2 in.

§ Yet we do not know that Nāgārjuna was still alive, though the usual legends make Āryadeva the personal disciple of Nāgārjuna. || *Fu-lou-cha-fu-lo*.

¶ *Ise-to-to-to-ma-na*; to-ma-na signifying vanquisher.

* *Bi-kia-lo*.

† *Pe-lo-po-na-dā*.

an *Utpala* leaf, and tearing it in two pieces, brewed them on different sides, and began to walk in the middle. Vishṇu, understanding the meaning of this action, tore the body of the Asura into two pieces and passed between them; then the Asura died. He had formerly obtained from a Rishi the privilege that if any of his limbs should be cut off they should reunite, but the Rishi had not promised that his body would be joined together again if it should be torn asunder. As Vishṇu had shown here the courage of a man, the kingdom was thus named *Varuṣa*. There was in this kingdom a royal chief who was a Brāhmaṇ of the *Kaṇśika** family. He had three sons who bore the single name *Vasubandhu*, which was common to them, and which signifies 'celestial parent' (*Tian-tain*). It is the custom in India to give all children only one name, which is common to them, and besides that, in order to distinguish them, another one is added as a special distinction. The third son *Vasubandhu* had advanced into the spiritual calling at the Sarvāstivāda school. He became an Arhant and was named *Bilīchi Vatsya* (*ba-po*); *Bilīchi* was his mother's name, and *Vatsya* signifies 'son'; but it is thus that the children of servants, cattle and specially calves are called. The eldest son *Vasubandhu* advanced equally in the spiritual calling at the Sarvāstivāda school, and although he might have escaped suffering he could not understand the idea, and wished to put himself to death; but the Arhant *Pindola*, who dwelt in the eastern *Videhadvīpa*, having seen him, came to him and instructed him in the contemplation of the void of the Hīnayāna; but *Vasubandhu*, not being satisfied with that, sent a messenger into the heaven named *Tushita* to make special inquiries of *Maitreya*, and after having received from him an explanation of the void of the Mahāyāna, he returned to *Jambudvīpa*, where, having given himself up to study, he received the gift of foresight, and because of that he was surnamed *Asaṅga* (*U-thyo*, 'unimpaired'). He still went sometimes into *Tushita* to *Maitreya* to make particular inquiries about the meaning of the *Sūtras* of the Mahāyāna; but when he explained to others what he had learned they did not believe him, and he was obliged to ask *Maitreya* to return to the earth, to which he consented. For four months *Maitreya* was

found in the temple of preaching, addressing the people upon the *Sūtra of Seventeen Worlds*, and explaining the meaning of it clearly; nobody but *Asaṅga* could see him,—the others could only hear the preaching,—and every one believed in the Mahāyāna. *Maitreya* taught *Asaṅga* the Samādhi of the solar ray; then everything became intelligible to him, and he composed in *Jambudvīpa* the *Upadeśa* upon the *Sūtras* of the Mahāyāna.

The second son *Vasubandhu* advanced also in the spiritual calling at the Sarvāstivāda school: in the extent of his learning, the number of the subjects which he understood, and his knowledge of books, he was unequalled. As his brothers had received other names, the name of *Vasubandhu* remained to him alone.

Towards the five-hundredth year after the nirvāṇa of Buddha, the Arhant *Katyāyana-putra*, who had advanced in the spiritual calling at the Sarvāstivāda school, lived. He was purely Indian, but in course of time he came into the kingdom of *Kipīne* (*Kofene*, *Cabul*), which is on the north-west of India, where at the same time there were 500 Arhants and 500 Bodhisattvas (?). He began to compose the *Abhidharma* of the Sarvāstivāda school, which consists of 8 *grāntas*. A declaration was published everywhere that those who knew anything of the *Abhidharma* of Buddha should tell what they knew of it. Then men, gods, dragons, *Yakshas*, and even the inhabitants of the heaven *Akanishṭha* communicated everything that they knew, were it only a phrase of a verse. *Katyāyana-putra*, with the Arhants and the Bodhisattvas, chose out of all what was not contradictory to the *Sūtras* and to the *Vinaya*; they formed of it a composition which they divided into eight parts, in which there were 50,000 ślokas. Then they wished to compose the *Vaiśāṅghya* to explain the *Abhidharma*. At this time *Āśvagoshā* was living in India, a native of the *Podi-do* country in the kingdom of *Śravastī*; he understood eight parts of the *Vyākaraṇa*, the four *Vedas*, the six sciences, and the three *Pitakas* of eighteen schools: so *Katyāyana-putra* sent an ambassador to *Śravastī* to invite *Āśvagoshā* to correct the writing of the proposed *Vaiśāṅghya*. For twelve consecutive years after his arrival in *Kipīne* *Āśvagoshā* was occupied with the work of which *Katyā-*

* *Kaṇśika-kīn*, one of the names of Indra himself.

yanaputra and the other Arhanas and Bodhisatvas had given him charge; the whole *Vaiśāḍhya* contained a million of *gāthas*. After their composition, Katyāyanaputra engraved a command on stone that no person, knowing this doctrine, should cause it to spread out of Kipine, and also that the composition itself should not pass beyond the frontier. He also took care that the other schools and the Mahāyāna should not profane or change this pure doctrine. This command was also confirmed by the king. The kingdom of Kipine was surrounded on all sides by mountains, and there were gates only on one side; all the prelates had set their guard of Yakshas as sentinels to allow all those who wished to be instructed to pass in, but not to allow them to go out again. In the kingdom of Ayodhya lived the master Vasasubhādra,* who was gifted with intelligence and a good memory; as he wished to learn the *Vaiśāḍhya*, he feigned madness and repaired to Kipine, where he listened for twelve consecutive years. Sometimes while they were explaining to him he began to inquire about the *Rāmāyana*; and on that account he was disdained by all, and was allowed to go out of Kipine, although the Yakshas had prevented the priests. After his return to his birthplace he declared that every one should hasten to learn of him the *Vaiśāḍhya* of Kipine, and, as he was old, his disciples wrote as quickly as he spoke, and in short everything was conducted towards a good end.

About the ninth century after the death of Buddha the Tīrthika Vinḍhyākavaśa lived; he demanded the work *Sene-go-lune* from the dragon who dwelt near the lake at the foot of the Vinḍhya mountains, and after having adapted it to his point of view, he came to Ayodhya and asked king Vikramāditya to allow him to enter into discussion with the Buddhist priests. At this time the great masters, such as Mañirāṭa, Vasubandhu, and others, were away in other kingdoms. The only one remaining was Buddhāmītra, the master of Vasubandhu, a very old and feeble man, but one who had deep knowledge; he was called to argue, but he could only repeat what the Tīrthika had said, and he was vanquished. The king recompensed the Tīrthika, who, upon returning to the Vinḍhya mountain, was changed into a pillar

of stone, but his work *Sene-go-lune* has been preserved till the present day. When, upon his return, Vasubandhu learned this circumstance, he caused a search to be made for the Tīrthika; but as he had been changed into stone, Vasubandhu composed the *Tsi-shi-chyane-shi-lune*, in which he refuted all the propositions of the *Sene-go-lune*, and for that he received from the king a gift of three *lakshas* of gold, with which he set up three idols,—one for the Bhikshunis, another for the Sarvāstivāda school, and the third for the school of the Mahāyāna; after that the true doctrine (that is to say Buddhism) was established anew. Vasubandhu first studied the meaning of the *Vaiśāḍhya*; then, having adopted this teaching, he composed every day a *gātha* in which was contained the meaning of all he had been teaching during that day; after having written this *gātha* on a leaf of copper, he caused it to be carried about on the head of an intoxicated elephant, and called by the beating of a drum those who wished to dispute the meaning of the *gātha*; but no one was found able to refute it. In this way more than 600 *gāthas* were composed, which contain all the meaning of the *Vaiśāḍhya*; it is the *Kosakavina*, or the *Kosa* in verse. When Vasubandhu had added to it fifty pounds in gold, he sent it to Kipine to all those who were masters of the *Abhidharma*, who were greatly rejoiced that their true doctrine was spread abroad; but as they found in the verses some incomprehensible passages, they themselves added other fifty pounds in gold, and desired Vasubandhu to write an explanation in prose; he then composed the *Abhidarmakosa*, in which he has introduced the Sarvāstivāda ideas, and refuted whatever deviated from the principles of the *Sūtras*. When this composition arrived at Kipine, the masters in these districts were irritated at seeing their opinions overturned.

The son of king Vikramāditya, who bore the name of Prāditya ("new sun") made his vows to Vasubandhu; and his mother, who entered the religious calling, became his pupil. When Prāditya mounted the throne, the mother and son besought Vasubandhu to stay at Ayodhya and enjoy their fortune, which he consented to do; but the brother-in-law of Prāditya, the Brāhmaṇ Vasurata, who had

* Po-soso-siui-ba-to-lo.

married his sister, was a master of the Tirthikas and was versed in *Vyākaraṇa*, according to the principles of which he composed a refutation of the *Kośa*, a work of Vasubandhu, who for his defence wrote *Sane-shi-er-lo-ping* (32 Articles), in which he refuted all the objections. The *Vyākaraṇa* was lost, and there remained only the other composition. The king gave him as a reward a *laksha* of gold, and his mother gave him two; with this Vasubandhu erected an idol in each of the three kingdoms of Kipine, Purushapura, and Ayodhya. The Tirthika, red with shame, wishing to humble Vasubandhu, brought from India to Ayodhya the master Siṅhabhadra, who composed two works to refute the *Kośa*: in the one (*Gurue-sane-ma-iē*), in 10,000 *gāthas*, he explained the meaning of the *Vaiśākṣhya*; and in the other (*Sai-shi-tune*), in 12,000 *gāthas*, he defended himself and overturned the opinions of the *Kośa*. After having finished these works, Siṅhabhadra provoked Vasubandhu to discussions, but the latter removed himself under pretext of his old age, referring them to wise people to judge them. At first this master, who had plunged into the study of the ideas of eighteen schools, had devoted himself to the Hinayāna, and did

not believe in the Mahāyāna,—he said that the doctrine of Buddha was not in it. Asaṅga, apprehending that his brother would write a refutation of the Mahāyāna, called Vasubandhu to Purushapura, where he himself dwelt, and converted him to the Mahāyāna. Vasubandhu repented of his former criticisms of the Mahāyāna and wished to cut out his tongue, but his brother sought to persuade him that it would be better to write an explanation of the Mahāyāna, which he indeed composed after the death of Asaṅga. It is to him that the commentaries on the *Avantansaka*, the *Nirvāṇa*, the *Saddharma-piṇḍarika*, the *Prajñāpāramitā*, the *Vimolakīrti*, and other *Sāstras* belong; besides these he composed *Veī-shi-tune*, in which is contained the whole conception of the whole Mahāyāna, and also *Gane-lu-mine* and the other *Sāstras* of the Mahāyāna. All that was composed by this master is distinguished for excellence of style and ideas: it is for that reason that, not only in India, but also in other countries, beyond the frontiers, the partizans both of the Hinayāna and the Mahāyāna have adopted his works as authoritative. Heretics grow pale with fear when they hear his name. He died at Ayodhya, at the age of 80 years.

SPECULATIONS ON THE ORIGIN OF THE CHĀVAḌAS.

BY MAJOR J. W. WATSON.

The celebrated clan of the ChāvaḌas differs in one respect from the other Rājput races. Of these a portion, the Suryavaṇśas, claim descent from the Sun; while an equally illustrious branch, the Chandravaṇśas, claim the Moon as their common ancestor. Other famous tribes derive their origin from the Ābu fire-fount, while some of more obscure lineage claim to be sprung from celebrated sages. But the ChāvaḌas, while many different origins have been assigned to them, are by no means unanimous on this point. Though as celebrated a race as any in India, and though their alliance is still eagerly sought by the proudest houses, while the ChāvaḌa kings of Ānhaḷḷa-wāḍā fill a prominent place in history, yet the important question of their origin is still involved in obscurity. Colonel Tod seems to think that the ChāvaḌas were a foreign race who landed in Saurāshṭrā, and thence spread northwards

until Vanarāja founded the kingdom of Paṭṭan. Mr. Kinloch Forbes in his interesting volumes speaks of "the still mysterious race of Kanaksen," but does not allude to this point. I am myself inclined to think that the ChāvaḌas may be a branch of the wide-spread race of Parmār, who everywhere seem to underlie modern races, so much so indeed as to have given rise in former times to the well-known saying, "The world is the Parmār's." Throughout Gujarāt it is difficult to mention any famous town or chiefdom which was not originally held by Parmārs. Thus Paṭṭan is said before the advent of the ChāvaḌas to have been ruled by Parmār's proper, and it is said that Ānhaḷ, in truth, merely discovered a large hoard of the ancient Parmār sovereigns in the ruins of their capital, which was known by the name of Paṭṭan. Paṭṭan is said to have been laid waste by a northern invader—possibly the same who

destroyed Valabhi. Vanarāja, on acquiring these hoards through the agency of Āṇhal, founded a new city, which he named after him, on the old site of Paṭṭan, whence the name Āṇhallawādā Paṭṭan. Ābu and Chandrāvati were both from the remotest time held by this tribe, and so were Bhīmāl (formerly called Śrīmāl), Pālanpur, Tharād, etc. Even in Saurāshtra we find traces of the Parmārs. Wadhvān, supposed to be the ancient Vardhamānpur, is said to have been ruled by Parmārs in very ancient times; and an inscription lately discovered in the south of this province shows that a Parmār sovereign ruled in Wāḷākshetra, the modern Wālāk. In the *Administration Report of the Pālanpur Superintendency for 1873-74* I alluded to the local tradition that Chāḍchat, properly Chāvaḍchat, is said to have derived its name from the Chāḍas or Chāvaḍas, a branch of the Parmār tribe; and there seem other reasons for thinking that the Chāvaḍas were indeed a branch of the Parmārs. There is a notorious tendency in the Rājput and other tribes to break up into sub-tribes, and these sub-tribes to go on subdividing, until the original name is lost. Thus if you ask a modern Rājput his tribe, he will tell you that he is a Devāni, Vāchāni, &c., and it is only on cross-examination that you can elicit that the Devānis are a sub-tribe of (say) the Jhāḍejās, while but (comparatively) few Jhāḍejās know that the Jhāḍejās are only a sub-tribe of the Yādava race. Like instances may be quoted of the Rāthod, Chohān, and other famous tribes, where the original tribe appellation has been completely or nearly lost and submerged in the fame of the sub-tribe. Thus the Wājās, who still survive at Jhānjhmer and elsewhere in Saurāshtra, are really of the Rāthod clan, but none of the tribe would call himself a Rāthod unless pressed. And so the Sirohi chieftains and their clansmen, who wrested from the Parmārs Ābu and Chandrāvati, though Chohāns, are universally known by the name of their sub-tribe, the Devrā. In a race of such undoubted antiquity as the Parmār, especially where (supposing these speculations correct) one branch, the Chāvaḍas, attained as sovereigns of Āṇhallawādā such undoubted preëminence, one might, I think, expect to find the name of the original clan obliterated by the surpassing glory of the sub-tribe. The genealogy of Vanarāja is, as is well known, traced to Vacharāja Chāvaḍa,

the father of Venirāja the lord of Divagadh, now held by the Portuguese. The legend relates that Vacharāja founded the Chāvaḍa sovereignty of Div, where he, and after him Venirāja, ruled. Venirāja betrayed the trust of a merchant who had entrusted him with the valuable cargoes of his vessels, after having taken the Arabian Sea to witness as to the truth of his protestations that the merchandise should remain at Div in safety. The Ocean, indignant at his name being thus taken in vain, overwhelmed Div, Venirāja being drowned in the deluge, which converted Div into an island, and has left its traces all along the southern coast of Saurāshtra, especially at Div, the Shīāl Island, Piram, Jhānjhmer, &c. It was on this occasion that the mother of Vanarāja, being, it is said, forewarned in a dream of the destruction which was imminent, fled to Panchāsar, and after the destruction of that township by the sovereign of Kananj (?) or Kalyāna (?) she sought refuge in the dense jungle which then clothed that part of Gujārat, and eventually at Chandur gave birth to Vanarāja, who on growing to man's estate became a renowned freebooter and associate of all the discontented characters of the country, and succeeded on one occasion in intercepting the Kananj tribute. The acquisition of so large a sum enabled him to be liberal to his followers and to entertain a larger band; and on the discovery to him of the hidden treasures of Paṭṭan by Āṇhal the herdsman, he was enabled to found the city of Āṇhallawādā Paṭṭan, afterwards so famous. The genius of the Hindu race has ever been to describe historical events in verse, and there exists a famous poem describing the sovereignty of the Chāvaḍas at Div, the founding of Paṭṭan, and the rule of the sovereigns of that famous city. On disputed points of history, if a disputant can quote a verse of any well-known poem or even a well-known couplet, it is usually accepted among Bhāts, Chārans, &c. as conclusive, and in one of the verses of this poem Vanarāja is distinctly mentioned as being a Parmār. I have never met any one who knew the whole poem, which is somewhat long, but the following verses will perhaps be sufficient to show the tradition regarding the destruction of Div, and the fact of Vanarāja being a Parmār:—

कवि ॥ दीनगदुदरे ॥ दयितनामरचते ॥

राजरीयो रघुनथ ॥ आनीयो चावडो भडे ॥

वेणीये वछराज ॥ राज इकीतर कोथो ॥
 सुभाफेर सुलतान ॥ भरा जीनी देड लीयो ॥
 सुवर्ण फुलवाथी सरड ॥ भरयनकोदीये जामडे ॥
 संवत सत्त सवासीये ॥ कोट दीव कीथो कडे ॥ २ ॥

The impregnable fortress of Divagadh, on the shore of the Arabian Sea,

Raghunāth granted them the sovereignty, and thus the Chāvaḍas came here.

Venirāja and Vacharāja reigned for 71 years.

Having conquered the subāh and the sultān,

They conquered the land and levied fines;

They established the rule of Sorath like a golden flower, and against them no one could prevail.

In Samvat seven hundred and eighty-seven they acquired Divakoṭ.

एकसमे भणवर ॥ वेहेसरीयो एकज आयो ॥
 मछलीवंदर गाम ॥ कोटीभज कमळशी कहायो ॥
 केसर मानी कुर ॥ झाझो दीते झाझो ॥
 दीव मज्यो दरबार ॥ आय वेणी रो बाझो ॥
 चारडो राण तुके नही ॥ लांज भमाणी कोणीए ॥
 समखाभा समुद्रतणा ॥ कोवरतनागर कोणीए ॥ २ ॥

Once upon a time a merchant came hither From Machlibandar town, by name Kamalshi, the owner of a *kror*;

His ships appeared numerous, and were laden with saffron, pearls, and camphor.

He met the Darbār of Div, and placed trust in Venirāja,

(He thought) The Chāvaḍo Rāṇā will not fail me, and will not betray my trust.

He (Venirāja) swore the oath of the sea, and the ocean* was violently inflamed with anger,—

समखाभा समुद्र ॥ अधरतनागर अयो ॥
 माल उताव्यो मंडीये ॥ नाणो स्याही तलहीनयो ॥
 स्वरनुआव्यु एकसडी ॥ राजपदीधर राणी ॥
 नाशनाशनरेद्र ॥ जवदकं तुजेने जाणी ॥
 भोचोनसीव नारीअसी ॥ शीवरमेश्वर सोरीये ॥
 साइवसेसर राणीसखी ॥ कोवरतनागर कोणीये ॥ २ ॥

He swore by the sea, and placed the ocean as security between them.

The merchant unloaded his merchandize at the custom-house, but (the Rāja) did not pay the value of a sesamum seed.

A dream came in truth to the Pāt Rāṇi of the state:

Flee, flee, O Lord of men! (said he), else I knowingly shall fly, leaving thee.

Together with the child in her womb fled the woman, having entrusted her affairs to Śiva, the supreme lord.

The female slave seated the Rāṇi on a camel, while the ocean was inflamed with anger.

संवतअट सीलोतरे ॥ नगरएक वड्यो निरंतर ॥

महावदसातम ॥ सबज जो वार जनीश्वर ॥

भगेकवीये चंद्र ॥ जोसजोवेजनी ॥

पौर एक पाछले ॥ वणराज आणवरदी ॥

आयसु एकोधु नगर ॥ जन्मोतरी जगसेजुये ॥

संवत नवसत्ताणवे ॥ अणहलपरऊजडहुए ॥ २ ॥

In Samvat eight hundred and two an eternal city was founded.

On the seventh of the dark half of Māhā, on the day of the powerful Saturn.

Jechandra the poet says that the Jotis commenced to search for favourable omens.

But one watch of the day was remaining when the *ān* of Vanarāja was proclaimed.

This existence was fixed for the city, by examining the horoscope of its birth with care,

That in Samvat nine hundred and ninety-seven Anhaḷapur shall be desolate.

प्रथम चाळवडेश ॥ शब्द गणसेण सुणायो ॥

अरुद दीवी भाण ॥ ऐमओवरदीशआयो ॥

परवरीयो परमार ॥ वासर्भन माळवसायो ॥

नवकोटी करनेच ॥ खेच गावणो खसया ॥

भोगवेभोग ज्ञानुभणी ॥ रणायत तणे राकोयो रंग ॥

वणराज कुवरे वाशीयो ॥ दसमो अणहलपुर दुरंग ॥ २ ॥

First he prepared his army, and sounded various kinds of music;

He proclaimed his *ān* on Ārbudha, and reached the Himālayas towards the north.

The Parmār prospered, and populated the city of Bhimāl,

He brought the nine fortresses of Mārwaḍ under his rule, and repulsed the inhabitants of Gājñā.

The enemy endures suffering, he kept up the honour of the Rāṇis.

Vanarāja Kuṣwar founded a tenth impregnable fort in Anhaḷapur.

The allusion in this verse to Vanarāja as a Parmār is unmistakeable, but it seems doubtful whether Gājñā refers to Gazni in Afghanistan, or to Khambhāt (the modern Cambay), of which it is an ancient appellation. The allusion to the Rāṇis evidently means the Chāvaḍas, who are called by this title in the second verse

* The sea was indignant at being sworn by falsely.

while the nine fortresses of Mārwaḍ—the *no kofī Mārwaḍ* are too well known to need any allusion to them here.

There is doubtless a verse, if not verses, missing between the third and fourth of those quoted, and they would probably describe the destruction of Div, the death of Venirāja, and the subsequent adventures of the mother of Vanarāja and of her son. I have seen a *vaśīśvali* in which the parentage of Vanarāja is traced up through Venirāja and Vacharāja to Vikramāditya of the Parmār tribe. I have not this *vaśīśvali* with me, and unfortunately do not remember whether the name of Kanaksen occurs among the progenitors of Vanarāja. Kanaksen is supposed to have made his first settlement in Saurashtra at Katpur, the ancient Kanakavati, whence to Div, along the sea-coast, of which the Chāvāḍas were specially fond, is but fifty miles. There seems, therefore, no impossibility in the Chāvāḍas having been able to extend their possessions along the coast, until in the time of Vacharāja they acquired possession of Div. Katpur is in Wālāk, and in Wālāk, we learn from a recently discovered inscription, a Parmār sovereign ruled in ancient times. On looking at the *Rās Mālā*, I see that Mr. Forbes quotes one of the bardic verses mentioned in this paper at page 38 of vol. I, of that interest-

ing work, though he differs slightly in the translation, and gives a different date. As, however, he does not quote the original, it is probable that the difference in the date was in the original verse from which he translated. Either date, however, satisfies the conditions required, for if Ābhallaḍā was laid waste by the armies of Alauddin in Samvat 1297, the Chāvāḍa race was expelled, and their monarch and his followers massacred by the merciless Mularāja, in 997. It was on this occasion that Mularāja, at the instigation of Bij Solankhi, slew his own mother, and her bleeding head rolled down the palace stairs; when it had rolled down seven steps, Mulrāj prevented it rolling farther. Bij Solankhi, on hearing of this, reproved Mulrāj, saying, "Had you not prevented the head rolling to the foot of the stairs, your race would have reigned for ever at Paṭṭan, but now they will only reign for seven generations." Although the above traditions, &c. are not sufficient grounds to assert positively that the Chāvāḍas are a branch of the Parmārs, yet they seem to convey the possibility of this being the case; and these crude speculations may induce others, possessing more accurate sources of information, to thoroughly elucidate the question, and finally settle the origin of one of the most famous Rājput tribes in India.

TRANSLATION OF BHARTRIHARI'S NĪTI ŚATAKAM.

BY PROF. C. H. TAWNEY, M.A., CALCUTTA.

(Continued from p. 71.)

The Praise of the Good Man.

All-hail to those who love the good,

And sinful men eschew,

Who honour their religious head,

And sacred lore pursue,

Who undisturbed their neighbours' wives,

And neighbours' merits view,

Who firm on Śiva fix their faith,

And vain desires subdue!

Firmness when fall'n on evil days, restraint
when fortune smiles,

Courage to look with steady eye on war's embattled files,

Persuasive speech in council, and a burning
thirst for fame,

Joined with a love of holy writ, th' heroic soul
proclaim.

Aims to bestow in secret, and the houseless
wanderer feed,

To hide one's own and loud proclaim another's
kindly deed,

Humbly to bear prosperity, and mourn with
those who weep—

Behold a vow which all the saints as yet have
failed to keep!

Charity best adorns the hand,

And reverence the head,

Truth is the virtue of the mouth,

In th' ears is scripture read,

Valour lends glory to the arms,

Virtue exalts the heart,—

Thus lofty souls, though poor, are decked

With grace in every part.

In times of joy the hero's soul
Is soft as lotus-flower,
But when misfortune's billows roll
Stands stiff as granite tower.

Raindrops on heated iron flung dissolve in airy
steam,
The same on lotus-leaflets hung like rows of
diamonds gleam,
In sea-shells, if Arcturus shine, they harden
into pearl,—
E'en so doth intercourse refine and elevate the
churl.

He only can be called a son who gratifies his
sire,
She only is a wife who doth to please her lord
aspire,
He only is a friend who hides the same in weal
and woe,—
These blessings three the righteous gods on
virtuous men bestow.

The world conspires to honour those
Who rise by gentle arts,
Who show their own heroic strain
By praising others' parts,
Who patiently reproaches bear,
Nor scorned revile again,
Who still to selfish ends prefer
The good of other men.

*The Path of Altruism.**

Trees are bowed down with weight of fruit,
Clouds big with rain hang low,
So good men humbly bear success,
Nor overweening grow.

No earrings deck the good man's ears, which
still on scripture feed;
His hands, still open to the poor, no golden
bracelets need;
The perfume of his kindly acts, like flowers in
leaves concealed,
Exceeds the fragrant scent which nard and
sandal unguents yield.

He brings thee joy, thy foes he slays,
Thy secrets hides, proclaims thy praise,
With timely gifts relieves thy need,
Thus may'st thou know the "friend indeed."

The sun awakes the lotus-bower,
The moon cheers up her favourite flower,
The cloud unasked its rain bestows,
Self-moved the good man's bounty flows.

Some generous souls forbear their own, and
seek another's gain;
Most men, neglecting not their own, their neigh-
bour's cause maintain;
Those are mere demons who would build their
wealth on other's loss,
But what are those who profitless their neigh-
bour's interest cross?

Milk to the water with it mixed its native
virtues gave,
Which, pitying sore its tortured friend, rushed
on a flaming grave;
The milk, unwilling to be left, must share its
fellow's fate,—
True friendship envy cannot reach, nor fiery
pains abate.†

Here Vishṇu sleeps, and there his foes,‡
Yonder the suppliant hills repose,§
Here lurk the quenchless fires of doom,—
Ocean's broad breast for all hath room.
Subdue desire, and vanquish pride,
Bear scorn, in wrong take no delight,
Speak truth, for sages' wants provide,
And follow still the path of right,
Honour the worthy, love thy foes,
Hide thy own virtues, cheer the faint,
Pursue renown till life doth close,
Such conduct marks the perfect saint.

How few there are in mind and speech and
body free from stain,
Who fill with linked benefits earth, heaven, and
Pluto's reign,
Who, telling others' virtuous acts, small grains
to hills increase,
In whose unruffled soul expands the flower of
sinless peace!

Nor Meru nor Himādri's heights adore,
Where trees are simply trees and nothing
more,—
For Malaya's nobler mount thy praises keep,
Whose woods sweet gums and odorous
balsams weep.

(Here ends the section devoted to Altruism.)

* In the original *paropakārapaddhati*.

† This stanza, says Kāśināth Trimbak Telang, gives a
moral aspect to an actual physical phenomenon.

‡ Kāśināth Trimbak Telang says he is not aware that any
mountain except Maināka sought shelter in the ocean.
‡ i.e. the demons.

The praises of Firmness.

The gods with priceless jewels were not bought,
Nor with the poison-chalice made aghast,
Nor ceased until they held the nectar fast*,—
The firm forsake not what they once have sought.

Sleeping sometimes upon the ground, sometimes
on gorgeous bed,
Sometimes with simple herbs content, sometimes
on dainties fed,
One moment clothed in rags, anon raffling in
gallant show,
The hero, following still his end, recks not of
joy or woe.

Mercy's the ornament of power, of courage
coarteous rede,
Of learning modesty, of wealth bounty to those
that need,
Of hermits gentleness and truth, long-suffering
of a king,
Of all men virtuous character, whence all these
glories spring.

Let cunning statesmen praise or blame,
Let Fortune turn or go her way,
Come instant death, or lingering shame,
Firm souls from virtue will not stray.

A snake lay helpless in the box pining for lack
of meat,
A rat by night gnaws through the side, and
yields his foe a treat,

With strength recruited then the snake by that
same hole escapes,—

Behold how vain our efforts are! Fate all our
fortune shapes.†

Flung down with force, the higher springs the
ball,

So good men rise victorious from their fall.

Sloth is the foe that makes our souls his lair,

Vigour the friend that saves us from despair.

The moon her wasted orb renews,

The tree when pruned puts forth fresh leaf,

Th' afflicted sage this course pursues,

Nor yields to unavailing grief.

(Here ends the praises of Firmness.)

THE LUNAR MANSIONS OF THE MUHAMMADANS.

BY E. REHATSEK, M.C.E., Hon. Mem. B. Br. R.A.S.

My attention was drawn to this subject by Professor Kera L. Chhatre's paper in the *Indian Antiquary*, vol. III. p. 206, wherein he gives the European names of the principal stars of the Hindu nakshatras. I need scarcely observe that after eliminating many Arabic names and Europeanizing others, numbers still remain, and will, as long as science exists, continue to bear testimony to the vast influence of the Arabs on European astronomy. In the lunar mansions given in the paper just alluded to, seven still retain their Arabic names; but the Muhammadans count 28 mansions, which are as follows:—

I. شرتان Shartān; two stars in Aries constituting its horns. There is a smaller star between them called ^{نطح} Natḥ; this is α Arietis. Some call these three stars together لاشرط Allashrūt. Probably they are α, β, and γ.

II. ^{باطين} Baṭīn; three small stars in the

shape of a triangle, in the belly (according to some, in the tail) of Aries.

III. ^{ثريا} Ṣeria; the Pleiades, said to consist of six stars, and not of seven, as commonly believed and sung by poets.*

IV. ^{الدبران} Aldebarān; a large, bright, red star in the eastern eye of Taurus; this star is also called the *Follower*, because it comes after the Pleiades.

V. ^{هالة} Haḥa't; three stars close to each other in the head of Orion. Doubtless Bellatrix, Betelgeux, and λ.

VI. ^{هنا} Hana't; five stars arranged on the left shoulder of Orion; but according to some this mansion consists of three stars opposite to those just mentioned, and is called ^{التحاي} Al-tahāi.

VII. ^{ذراع} Zera'a', the arms. Two bright stars in the head of Gemini, the distance between them

* An allusion to the churning of the ocean to obtain the Amrita. The fable has been rendered in English verse by Mr. Griffith of Banaras.

† Kāśināth Trimbak Telang observes that this stanza inculcates fatalism pure and simple, and is out of place here.
* "Que septem dici, sex tamen esse solent."—Bo.

being the same as between the شريطين Sharṭīn of the first mansion. Among the Arabs the mansion is called ذراع ميسوط Zerā'a mabsūt, i.e. stretched arm (here foreleg) of the Lion, with the star Regulus—a European corruption from رجل Rijl, foot (not Rigel in the foot of Orion), to distinguish it from the ذراع مقبوض Zerā'a mabḥūṣ of Canis major, in which Sirius is situated.

VIII. ^{نسر} نسران Nasrat, called also ^{أنف الأسد} أنف الأسد Anf dhasad, nose of the lion; two small stars in Cancer, called the two nostrils; they have between them a nebulous star which is by some called the lair of Leo; but the Greeks are said to have named these two little stars the two asses, and the nebula between them their manger (Præsepè).

IX. ^{طرفه} طرفه Tarfat, i.e. the eye; this is λ Leonis, with the outsider ξ.

X. ^{جبهة} جبهة Jabhat, i.e. forehead of the lion; properly γ Leonis, spelt in European catalogues Al Gieba, is the name of this mansion, which consists of four stars forming an irregular quadrangle.

XI. ^{زبر} زبر Zubarat; two stars between the shoulders of the lion, i.e. δ and θ Leonis.

XII. ^{الصرقة} الصرقة Alṣarfāt. According to some this is Cor Leonis, and according to others ^{ذنب} ذنب Zenebor, the tail—spelt Denib in European star-maps; some call it also ^{هلبة} هلبة Hulbat, bristles or hairs, viz. at the end of the tail, but some stars in Ursa Major are also called by this latter name.

XIII. ^{أورا} أورا A'wwā. The "wow-wow" of dogs. Four stars in a curve from north to south, where they present the appearance of the letter Lam ل; they are on the breast of Virgo, and the Arabs say they are dogs barking after the lion.

XIV. ^{سمك الأعزل} سمك الأعزل Semāk alla'zāl. This is Spica Virginis, which before the translation of Ptolemy's Almagest by the Arabs was considered to be on the two legs of Leo, but after that all the translators agreed to call it ^{سنبلة} سنبلة Sunbulat, the Sheaf, and the whole constellation (which is the sixth of the Zodiac) the Virgin.

XV. ^{غفر} غفر Ghafr: Young wild kid, the stars

θ, ε, κ, on the foot of Virgo; but, according to some, only two stars.

XVI. ^{زباني} زباني Zubāni. The name of this mansion is no doubt Persian, designating "the tongue" of the scales; now, however, it is in the pans, and consists of α and β Librae; often they are designated by the dual زبانيان Zubānian or زباناتان Zubānetan.

XVII. ^{إكليل} إكليل Eklil or ^{عسر} عسر Esfer, i.e. diadem, consists of three bright stars on the head of Scorpio, forming a somewhat curved line.

XVIII. ^{قلب العقرب} قلب العقرب Kalb ala'krab, Cor Scorpionis, a red twinkling star; before it is another smaller star, and also after it, three forming a somewhat curved line.

XIX. ^{شولة} شولة Shulat, meaning the erect tail of the Scorpion, and consisting of λ and ν Scorpionis, in the sting of the scorpion.

XX. ^{نعائم} نعائم Na'aim, i.e. ostriches, consisting of four bright stars forming a quadrangle in the constellation Sagittarius; but the Arabs compared the Milky Way to a river, and these stars to ostriches coming to drink water. They were formerly called ^{وارد} وارد Na'aim vāred, i.e. arriving ostriches, whilst four other stars, opposite to them and likewise forming a quadrangle, were called ^{مادر} مادر Na'aim sāder, i.e. ostriches returning from the water.

XXI. ^{بلد} بلد Baldat, the region, &c. This is said to be a tract of the sky without any stars, and to have therefore been compared to a desert, as well as to the interval between the two eyebrows of a man, which is likewise called Baldat. This mansion consists of six stars called ^{قلادة} قلادة kullādat—a necklace, forming a curve on the western border of this area situated between the ^{نعائم} نعائم Na'aim and the ^{سعد الذابح} سعد الذابح Sa'd al-zābiḥ, i.e. the 20th and the 22nd mansions.

XXII. ^{سعد الذابح} سعد الذابح Sa'd al-zābiḥ; Sa'd, the slayer. Two stars close to each other,—they are not bright,—and near them is a third; the Arabs say that this is the sheep which Sa'd slays. These three stars are all on the head of Capricornus.

XXIII. ^{سعد بلع} سعد بلع Sa'd bala', Sa'd has swallowed. Two stars on the left hand of Aquarius, and between them a third.

XXIV. سعد السعود Sa'd alsu'nd—three small stars, β , ξ in Aquarius, and ϵ in the tail of Capricorn.

XXV. سعد الإخبية Sa'd Allakhbiat,—four stars on the right hand of Aquarius; three of them represent a triangle,—they are ducks,—and the fourth within is Sa'd himself; the three first stars are sometimes also called the house. The Sa'ds among the Arabs are nine or ten; the majority of them are not mansions of the moon, but are scattered about in various constellations.

XXVI. and XXVII. فرع الدول المقدم Fera' al-dûl almuqaddim, the anterior interval between the handles of the urn from which the water is poured out, and فرع الدول المؤخر Fera' al-dûl almuwaḥḥhar, the posterior interval. Each of these mansions consists of two bright stars at

some distance from each other; they are all in Pegasus and appear to be α , or Markab; γ , or Algenib; Alperah, and β .

XXVIII. بطن الحوت Bâṭn al-bûṭ, belly of the fish. This is a bright star with small ones near it. A woman with a chain is said to have represented this constellation; but the Arabs made a fish of it, in the body of which this star is; it is no doubt the one marked "Baten Kaitos" in our catalogues. Some have named this mansion ارشأ Ershâ, the rope, so that the urn should not be without one.

In conclusion I may observe that astronomers differ somewhat, in the description of several of the mansions, but on the whole this list will be found pretty correct, and I only regret that in drawing it up I could not avail myself of Ideler's *Untersuchungen über die Sternnamen*, which would no doubt have made it a great deal better than it is.

JORRESPONDENCE AND MISCELLANEA.

VERSE 33 OF CHAND'S 27TH CANTO.

(Aste, vol. III. p. 339).

Sm,—I cannot offer a better apology than that which Mr. Growse has embodied in the prefatory remarks to his "Notes on the 27th Canto of Chand" for attempting a translation of verse 33, especially its last line, in order to rescue it, if I can, from the obscurity which envelopes it. In a verse so highly technical, the solution of the difficulty may be sought for in the particular development which Hindu astrology has received, and the stand-point which the poet has assumed.

Hindu astrologers have conceived certain abstract situations in connexion with the position which planets assume in the course of their rotation, which, individually, they hold up as productive of the highest excellence which falls to the share of a person whose birth coincides with the conjunction, in the department to which the situation may be referred. By analogy, the influence of these situations is extended to the perfect success of particular achievements taken up at a moment when the conjunction is predicted to happen. The situations are reduced to three heads; namely, *Sriṣṭi*, Wisdom; *Stāiti*, Royalty; *Saṁhār*, Victory.

The poet had undoubtedly in view the last category when he constructed the 33rd verse. The figure constructed in the margin makes an approach to the ideal of Victory. Figure No. 2 may be constructed from the unequivocal materials which enter into the composition of

Fig. 1.



Fig. 2.



the verse in question. Exceptions excepted, it accords with the situation to which victory is ascribed. From a comparison of the two figures, it appears that Saturn, the most powerful, and the Moon, the most important planet in such calculations, and Venus, have no place assigned to them in the 2nd figure. This is accounted for by attention to some of the technical and synonymous terms the poet uses. Thus *bharat* *bhar* is synonymous with the Moon, *bharat* having the signi-

fication of 'deer.' The word *chakra* in the following line bears this out, it being commonly the Moon's weapon, as the trident is of Mercury. Further, the context assigns the same place to the Moon as it gives to Mercury. The epithet *baliga* marks out *Kruar* as Saturn; the lesser *kruar*, i.e. the Sun and Mars, have already their houses assigned to them. *Udaya* is *lagna*, and Saturn at once takes its proper place. Moreover, it is in its own house where it is

highest (*evanchch*), and consequently no place could have been better for it. The position of Venus is easily inferred from the position of the Sun, and the necessity for securing it a place beyond the range of the ken (*āpīṣi*) of the other planets. We have only to fill in these apparently missing planets in the second figure, which gives at once a counterpart of the first figure.

With this explanation the passage is divested of obscurity. Mr. Growse's translation (p. 341) may therefore be read with the following emendation:—

*** Mercury carrying the trident in his hand and the Moon's powerful disc, &c. Omit "for one, &c. to *admodrika*." ** with Saturn in the *lagna* (this itself shows the highly powerful character of the *lagna* when the king marched out to battle). Omit "at sunrise, &c. to *night*."

It may be remarked that the assumption of an allusion to palmistry in a verse strictly astrological is rather irrelevant in explaining an author who plumes himself on his knowledge of astrology. To correct an inaccuracy:—the eight outside houses are not collectively called *Apoḥma*. *Paxpha* is the first outside house, and *Apoḥma* the second, and so on.

L. Y. ASKHEDKAR, B.A.

Miraj, 16th February 1875.

MANICHÆANS ON THE MALABAR COAST.

The Pahlavi Inscriptions at the Mount and at Koṭṭayām are not, if we accept Mr. Burnell's own interpretation, Manichæan.* They simply, therefore, connect the Malabar Christians with Persia during some period of the Sassanian dynasty. Now this connection with Persia we are, I think, already pretty clear about, without supposing it to have been in the hands of Manichæans. There are Syrian documents which tell us that the Christians of Malabar were early connected with Urrhoi or Edessa. They speak of men of note reaching Malabar from Bagdad and Babylon too, as well as from Syria. We have no difficulty in understanding that these men would know the Pahlavi language, which was the court language of Persia at that time. And the nature of the Pahlavi Inscriptions, so far as they can be understood, would seem to indicate that the writers were rather Eutyrians or Nestorians than Manichæans.

I can quite follow Dr. Burnell when he says that "all the trustworthy facts up to the tenth century" "go to show that the earliest Christian settlements in India were Persian." But I cannot follow to the sudden conclusion that they "probably, therefore, were Manichæan or Gnos-

tic." The connection of the early Christian Church of South India with Urrhoi or Edessa is enough to account for any amount of Persian antiquities now discoverable, without the supposition that the only Persian arrivals were Manichæans.

The testimony of Abū Zaid, in 805 A.D., as to the presence of "Jews and people of other religions, especially Manichæans" in Ceylon, is no doubt valid. But even this mention of Manichæans is to be received *cum grano salis*. For it is a remarkable fact that through the Middle Ages the term of *opprobrium* in fashion, in relation to any despised company of Christians, was Manichæan. See a very valuable note on this subject in Elliott's *Horæ Apocalypticæ*, in an appendix to vol. II., on the charge of Manichæism against the Paulikians. Mr. Elliott says: "At the rise of Paulikianism, and afterwards, Manichæe was the opprobrious term most in vogue. The Eutyrian and Monophysite were reviled as Manichæes; the Iconoclast as a Manichæe. What else then the Paulikian dissident? The charge once originated, the bigotry of the apostate churches in Greek and Roman Christendom pretty much ensured its continuance. So at least through the Middle Ages." In a note to this Mr. Elliott adds, "In latter times Pope Boniface VIII. even condemned as Manichæes all that asserted the prerogative of kings as independent of and not subject to the Pope."† Abū Zaid would only therefore have been following the fashion of the time if he called Eutyrian, Nestorian, or any class of Christians he might meet in the East, Manichæans. The only safe conclusion we can draw from his testimony is, I fancy, that there were CHRISTIANS in Ceylon.

Again, as to the name of the place Mānigrāmāṁ, where Iravi Korittan, who was probably a Syrian or Persian Christian, settled, I think it is very unlikely to have received its name from the heresiarch Manes. The meaning of Mānigrāmāṁ is more likely, I think, to be *village of students*. The Māni was the Brahmacāri or Brāhmaṇ student. Another form of the same root is the common word in I suppose all (certainly in many) Tamil villages for any scholar—Māṇākkāṁ or Māṇawakāṁ, the origin being no doubt the Sanskrit *Māṇava*, a child. Moreover the name Grāmāṁ, if my memory serves me, was applied in Malabar chiefly, if not solely, to villages of Brāhmaṇs. However here I write under correction, since at the present moment I cannot verify my belief in the matter.

* See *Ind. Ant.* vol. III, pp. 308–316.

† Conf. Gibbon, *Hist.* vol. VI. pp. 47, 57, vol. VII. pp.

136, 138, 142, &c.; also Elliott's *Horæ Apocalypticæ*, vol. II. p. 306 (3rd ed.).

But I may add that from the description in Mr. Whitehouse's most exhaustive little book of the *Māṇigrāmakar*, I am confirmed in my belief that they were *Brāhman converts*—or at least partial converts—perhaps to Iravi Korttan himself. Mr. Whitehouse points out that they were "connected with native law-courts," and that they became "trustees and protectors of lands and churches." They were also, under Knān Thōmā, appointed to "regulate and manage all that related to the social position and caste questions" of certain "artizans." This is all very natural if they were *Brāhman converts*, but why Manichæans should be chosen for such positions it is hard to imagine. Mr. Whitehouse further points out that the corpse of the last priest of the *Māṇigrāmakar* at Kāyēnkulam was burnt—evidently a reversion to the Hindu customs of their forefathers. Still further he tells us that in the neighbourhood of Quilon their priests, who were called *Naimar-achchan* (by the way quite a Hindu appellation) were buried in a "sitting posture," and this is the way in which certain very high caste *Nambūris* are buried to this day. I am inclined to think, therefore, that there is more evidence that the *Māṇigrāmakar* were high-caste *Brāhman converts*, who originated from *Māṇigrāmam*, the *student-village*, which may have been one of the chief seats of Hindu learning at the time, than that they were Manichæans; which supposition appears to me to rest solely on the fact that the name of the place begins with *Māṇi*.

Again, there was the troublesome character *Māṇikavāchakar*,* who did much evil as a *sorcerer* in the early days of the Christian Church in Malabar. Now I do not think that this man had any connection whatever with the *Māṇigrāmakar*, though his name does begin with *Māṇi*. He was in all probability a *Tamiḷ sorcerer*: and I am not aware that the Manichæans were ever given to sorcery—at least there is no hint of the kind in Bishop Archelaus's disputation with Manes himself, nor in the Treatise of Alexander, Bishop of Lycopolis, nor in any subsequent description of the Manichæans I can find. *Māṇikavāchakar* is a surname still existing among the *Tamiḷs*. The name is to be found to-day in Jaffna, and no doubt elsewhere. Other *Tamiḷ* names have a similar origin. For instance one of our own native pastors has for his original family name *Chinivāchakar*, the meaning of which is not far to find, *Chini* being 'sugar,' and *vāchakar* 'speech'; *Chinivāchakar* therefore means *sugar-tongued*; and *Māṇikavāchakar* is 'Jewel-tongued,' *Māṇikya* or *Māṇika* being a 'ruby,' or generally a *jewel*. *Māṇikavāchakar* is therefore a purely

Tamiḷ name, and the man who bore it was, I think, simply a *Tamiḷ sorcerer*. I may as well here confess that I myself once suspected that this man might have been Thomas the Manichee, of whom there has been some ground for supposing that he was once in Malabar. But I now think that the name and character of *Māṇikavāchakar* is a sufficient answer in the negative.

I conclude, therefore, that neither *Māṇigrāmam*, nor *Māṇikavāchakar*, nor the *Pahlavi* records, point with the least degree of probability to Manes and his followers.

There may indeed have been Manichæans in South India and in Ceylon; but I do not think we have found any certain trace of them at present, and we shall most certainly be misled if we begin to look up all the words beginning with *Māṇi*. There is no ground whatever for supposing that Knān Thōmā was Manichæan; nor does it follow that because Mār Sāphōr and Mār Aphrōttu came from Babylon that they were Manichæans. The *Epistle of Manes* to India might give some colour to the supposition that he had followers in some part of the country, but if neither the *Māṇigrāmakar*, nor the perverts of *Māṇikavāchakar*, nor the writers of the *Pahlavi* Inscriptions were Manichæans, where are we to find any trace of the sect on the Malabar coast?

With regard to the Apostle Thomas's visit to Malabar, Dr. Burnell says there is "no warrant for supposing that St. Thomas visited South India—an idea which appears to have arisen in the Middle Ages, and has been since supported on fanciful grounds by some missionaries." But it appears to me that the grounds for supposing that the Manichæans were the "first Christian missionaries" to India—at least to Malabar—are much "more fanciful." For this fact we absolutely have no evidence. For though Sulaimān may have found Manichæans in Ceylon in 850 A.D. (which nevertheless I have shown to be somewhat doubtful), this does not deny the probability of there having been Christians already in Malabar. Indeed we have evidence, quite as trustworthy as that of Abū Zaid, that there were Christians in Malabar long before 850 A.D. And even with regard to the advent of St. Thomas himself, the evidence is certainly not so 'fanciful' as that *Māṇigrāmam* is the 'village of Manes.' Cosmas in the 6th century found Christians in Malabar; but he says nothing of Manichæans. Pantænus speaks in the 2nd century of a Gospel of St. Matthew being in India, and of the visit of an *apostle*; and Manes was not then born. The report that St. Thomas had been martyred in India was known in England at least as early

* Not indeed mentioned in Dr. Burnell's paper, but described at length in Mr. Whitehouse's *Lingerings of Light*.

as the 9th century. The Syrians themselves speak of the care of the Edessans for them. And Eusebius and other Church historians tell us that St. Thomas was the Apostle of Edessa. It is remarkable too that Pseudo-Abdias, in his account of the Consummation of Thomas, adds to the original that St. Thomas's bones were taken by his brethren after his martyrdom, and buried in Edessa. Even though we allow that this is a myth, we cannot but ask, Whence did Abdias receive this idea of Edessa?

My own strong impression is that St. Thomas was the Apostle both of Edessa and Malabar, and that hence their connection arose. The Persian colonists thus become no mystery. The Pahlavi language, according to Max Müller, originated in an Aramaean dialect of Assyria, and may well therefore have been known and used so far north in the Persian Empire as Edessa; and from Antioch, which is not many miles from the ancient Edessa, the Malabar Christians have received their Bishops from at least a very remote period. As Edessa was also the see of Jacob Albardai, the reviver of Eutychianism, I suspect that the Church of Malabar, or at least many of its members, have been Eutychians since the 6th century. But this is too wide a subject for me to enter on now.

Dr. Burnell seems to think that some causes must have arisen to "transform the old Persian Church into adherents of Syrian sects." But surely there is no necessity whatever to raise such a question. The Church of Edessa early became subject to Antioch, and beyond this there is no evidence of change. The name Syrian was, no doubt, first given to these people by Europeans. They never, I believe, call themselves Syrians, but *Nasrani Māppilla*.

It only remains for me to add that having read through Dr. Burnell's paper with increasing astonishment at the slender grounds, as they appear to me, on which he seeks to establish the fact that the earliest Christian sects in India were Manichæans, and having supposed that the Pahlavi Inscriptions were to make it all plain, my astonishment came to a climax when I read, "If these Pahlavi Inscriptions were Manichæan, they would be in a different character. It seems to me not unlikely, however, that relics of the Manichæans may yet remain to be discovered on the west coast of the Peninsula, where they once were very numerous." (The italics are my own.)

The Manichæan origin of Christianity in South India, then, is a thorough *miserrimus dexter*—and we may safely shelve the subject till the "relics of the Manichæans" actually do come to light.

* Conf. *Ind. Ant.* vol. I. p. 377, and vol. III. p. 268.—Ed.

All this does not, however, diminish one jot the interest one feels in the discovery of the Pahlavi Inscriptions at the Mount and at Kottayam. I tender my very best thanks to Dr. Burnell for his antiquarian researches, and trust they may be long continued.

The true value of these Pahlavi Inscriptions is, I venture to think, that they testify to the fact, which I believe I was the first to bring forward, that there was a very early connection between the Church at Edessa and the Church of Travancore and Cochin.

RICHARD COLLINS.

Kandy, Ceylon, 18th March 1875.

NOTES.—SĀMPGĀM, BELGĀM, &c.

Town Sāmpgām, or the Village of Snakes, S.E. from Belgām: *Ind. Ant.* vol. IV. p. 6.

Fort Belgām was conquered from Parikshit, the father of Janamejāya of the Gauja Agrahara grant*, by Sulṭān Muḥammad Shāh Bāḥmani in A.D. 1472.

In 1523 Ismāil Ādil Shāh conferred it in jāgir upon Khāṣrū Tārḳ, from Lāristān, with the title of Āṣad Khān, and upon the death of that nobleman in 1546 it was confiscated, with all his other estates and property, by Ibrāhīm Ādil Shāh.

The town and great Temple of Harihara, where the burning of the snakes mentioned in the Gauja Agrahara grant took place in 1521, is situated 120 miles S.E. from Belgām, where Dr. Francis Buchanan discovered some inscriptions of the reign of Yudishṭhira when he visited the place in 1803.

When and by whom was the Mosque at Sāmpgām erected? and may not the passages from the Qorān ably deciphered by Professor Blochmann be applied in throwing further historical light upon the atrocious burning of the wretched beings denounced as heretics at the solar eclipse at Harihara, 6-7 April 1521 A.D.?

Why was the town designated by the name Sāmpgām, or Village of Snakes? Was it at any period inhabited by a Sūri or Syrian population,† and what accounts are given there of the burning at Harihara?

Notes.—*Ferishtah*, *Persian text*, vol. II. p. 31; Buchanan's *Southern India*, vol. III. p. 83; Scott's *Dekhan*, p. 277; *Arāṣh-i-Mulḳ*, translated by Lieut. M. H. Court (1871), p. 164.

R. R. W. ELLIS.

Star-cross, near Exeter, 6th March 1875.

† Certainly not.—Ed.

Answers to Mr. Sinclair's Queries.

(Ind. Ant. vol. IV. p. 118.)

(1) The Kine tree is the *Acacia procera*. It is very common in the Kōkan, and is known there by the name Kinai. It is a useful timber-tree, and its dark heartwood closely resembles blackwood.

(2) Khurāsani is the *Guizotia oleifera*. This compositous plant is extensively cultivated in various parts of India for its seed (or rather the fruit). In the neighbourhood of Bombay it is known by the above name, in the Dekhan it is called Kārale, and in Upper India it goes by the name of Ramatil and Kālātil. It yields an edible oil, which is also useful in painting, for burning, &c.

NARAYAN DĀJĪ.

Bombay, 5th April 1875.

SONG OF HAFIZ.

The following translation, in the measure of the original, of the famous song of Hafiz, is taken from the *Calcutta Review* :—

Singer, O sing with all thine art,
 Strains ever charming, sweetly new;
 Seek for the wine that opens the heart,
 Ever more sparkling, brightly new !
 With thine own loved one, like a toy,
 Seated apart in heavenly joy,
 Snatch from her lips kiss after kiss,
 Momentarily still renew the bliss !
 Boy with the silver anklets, bring
 Wine to inspire me as I sing;
 Hasten to pour in goblet bright
 Nectar of Shiraz, soul's delight,
 Life is but life, and pleasures thine,
 Long as thou quaff'st the quick'ning wine ;
 Pour out the flagon's nectary wealth,
 Drink to thy loved one many a health.
 Thou who hast stole my heart away,
 Darling, for me thy charms display,
 Deck and adorn thy youth's soft bloom,
 Use each fair dye and sweet perfume.
 Zephyr morn, when passing by
 Bow'r of my love, this message sigh,
 Strains from her Hafiz fond and true,
 Strains still more sparkling, sweetly new !

THE PRE-HISTORIC PEOPLE OF THE NICOBARS.

Few literary and topographical curiosities have appeared for many a day so unique as a *Vocabulary of Dialects spoken in the Nicobar and Andaman Islands*, by Mr. F. A. de Roepstorff, an extra assistant commissioner there, and son of one of the last Danish Governors of the Nicobars. The work, of which only forty-five copies have been

published, is a vast but thin folio, printed at the hand-press of the convict settlement of Port Blair, which is so deficient in type that corrections and additions have been made in many instances by the pen. Mr. de Roepstorff devotes fifteen of his expansive pages to an account of the inhabitants, while the rest of the work consists of a vocabulary of words in English and in the Nankauri, Great Nicobar, Teresa, Car Nicobar, Shobang, and Andaman dialects.

Though side by side in the direction of north and south, the Andamans and the Nicobars differ widely both as to their products and their people. The Andamans are clothed to the water's edge with lordly forest trees and mangrove jungle, made so impenetrable by glorious creepers and brushwood that even the pigmy inhabitants sometimes fail to penetrate the forests. Not a palm-tree is to be seen except such as we have introduced. The Andamanese man, when fully grown, ranges in height from 4 feet 9 inches to 5 feet 1 inch. His negro origin is unmistakable. The Nicobars, on the other hand, produce magnificent forests of coconut palms, especially amid the coral sand that fringes the islands. The interior is dotted with long-stretching patches of grass, which, in the distance, look like a series of English parks, but are in reality jungle, marking the comparatively unfruitful soil of magnesian clay. The Nicobarese, or Nankauri, as he is called, from the islands which we know best, stands out from 5-6" to 5-9" in height when fully grown. Though neither Malay nor Barmese, he looks like a cross between both. He may, till we know more about him, be pronounced the outer fringe of the Malayan races, according to Dr. Rink; Mr. de Roepstorff modestly refuses to dogmatize save in a negative way. As the Andamanese point to a fiercer tribe in the interior, the Jadāhs, who are aboriginal compared with them, so in the Nicobars we have the Shobangs, who are a purely Mongolian race. But the Nankauri people, or Nicobarese proper, have gradually got the better of them, though there are still occasional fights, and the majority have settled down as the potters of the group in the isolated island of Shaurs. As the kitchen middens, or heaps of oyster-shells covering articles made in copper and iron, point to an older race, or at least an older civilization, than that of the Andamanese, who no longer eat oysters, and used only flint before we introduced iron, so Mr. de Roepstorff pronounces the Nicobarese "a very old people, having preserved their old civilization and religious customs intact, while, perhaps, their religious ideas and theories have gradually died out."

Each Nicobar hamlet of from four to twenty houses forms a democratic community enriched by

nature with all that can meet their wants, and troubled only by the Iwis or manes of their deceased progenitors, with which they wage almost incessant war. The Nicobarese resemble the Andamanese and all the non-Aryan races of India not only in this fear of demons, and in the exorcism required to defeat their malice, but in truthfulness, honesty, good nature, and the love of drink. The family life seems perfect. The father is the head of the house, the mother takes his place on his death, and when both pass away, the property is equally divided, the eldest son, however, taking the house, but maintaining his unmarried sisters. Each may do as he likes, but age is revered, and women are treated with a loving respect. Girls, married at from 13 to 15 years of age, freely choose their husbands, being influenced through their relatives, like more modern races, chiefly by such considerations as the suitors' possessions in pigs and palm-trees. Fidelity is the rule, subject to a somewhat lax system of divorce. To have, or to be expecting children, is most honourable. In the latter case both the man and the woman cease to work for a time. Friends compete with each other for the honour of feasting them, and they are taken to the gardens in the interior, far from ship-captains and wild pigs, where on the co-operative system the Nicobarese rear their scanty vegetables. The seed sown by such a couple is sure to be blessed. Their women enjoy a liberty and are treated with a reverence which all other Eastern races would do well to imitate. We were eye-witnesses of this when we accompanied "Captain London," who was gorgeously dressed in a naval uniform much too large for him, to visit his wife and mother, who squatted unashamedly on either side of the fireplace of the principal house in the village of Malacca. The house was scrupulously clean, save for the smoke and soot. The evening meal of pandanus was being cooked, and the abundant coconut was offered. A mixture of all the tongues of the East sufficed as the medium of the most polite messages. The best Highland shanty was not half so comfortable, while the sea, gently rolling in

under the house, washed away all traces of impurity below. We were in a lake-dwelling!

With the dead the Nicobarese bury most of his moveable property, and fast for two months, abstaining even from their loved tobacco. At the end of that time they dig up the body, when the widow or mother, taking the head on her lap, strips it of all putridity and the remains are finally consigned to the earth. Believing vaguely in a life to come, they hold that the spirit joins that land of Iwis to whose mischievous action they ascribe all misfortune, whether fever or unsuccessful fishing. As with the Andamanese also, the moon plays an important part in their superstitions, for their success in spearing fish by torchlight, at which they are adepts, depends on its light. At certain stages of the moon they will not work. To neutralize the Iwi—the same word means in their language "to become"—they have 'manloene' or exorcists, who pretend to cure the sick by extracting from their bodies the stone or pig's tooth which is said to have caused the sickness. These priests also practise ventriloquism. Their great time is when the hamlets are summoned to that feast which is intended to drive off the Iwis partly by gifts and partly by force. While the men and priests sit smoking and drinking silently, the women continue to howl dolefully as they cut up the gifts for the spirits and throw the fragments into the sea. Daubed over with oil and red paint, and excited by their potations of palm-wine, the 'manloene' advance to the conflict. Now in deep bass they coax, and now they fight wildly with the malicious Iwis, to the chorus of the women's howling, till, at last, after a hand-to-hand battle, the invisible spirits are carried off to a toy boat festooned with leaves previously prepared for them. This the youths tow triumphantly out to sea, where they leave it and its supernatural cargo, and return to the feast and the dance. Locked in a circle, with their arms over each other's shoulders, the men leap up and fall down on their heels to the sound of hideous music.—*Friend of India*, July 23rd, 1874.

BOOK NOTICES.

BOMBAY SANSKRIT SERIES. *Daśakumāracharita*, Part I, edited with critical and explanatory notes by G. Bühler, Ph.D., M.A. 1873.

The *Daśakumāracharita* is rightly reckoned among the standard works of Sanskrit literature. Its author, Daṇḍin, was one of those great masters at whose wonderful power and skill we can only marvel. In the hands of those giants the language was a mere plaything, and assumed the most varied and exquisite forms, which the pre-

sent age strives in vain to imitate. These are the men who have shown to the world the extraordinary and almost unrivalled powers of that most ancient tongue, and how variform are the structures which a dexterous workman can build upon its simple bases. The work under review is a model of prose writing, and the student would do well to read and re-read it. It possesses all the good points of the well-known prose writers without

their faults. It would have been impossible for Bāṇa, with his love of diffusiveness, to have described the city of Pushpapuri, or to have summed up the virtues of Rājakaṇṇa, in pages less in number than the lines in which Daṇḍin disposed of them. Yet in the concise style of the latter poet there is sufficient to prove that his powers of description were of no mean order.

He has given, too, enough of alliteration to demonstrate his acquaintance with that branch of *alaṅkāra*, and to gratify those who have a taste for it, without engendering the mingled feeling of weariness and irritability inseparable from the perusal of Subandhu's *Vīṣṇuśaṭṭī*.

But these eulogistic remarks must be held to apply to the language alone. With ancient Indian writers the subject to be treated on would seem to have been of comparatively little moment, whilst the language in which it was to be clothed was all-important. Hence the poverty of real instruction derivable from the classical writings, and hence also the difficulty not unfrequently found in interpreting compositions on the most ordinary subjects. If Bhāravi had written to instruct, the fifteenth canto of his poem would never have appeared, and so with parts of most of the poems.

No one, again, would venture to deny that the *morale* of Sanskrit literature is very low, and the work under review forms no exception to the rule. Of its male heroes, Rājakaṇṇa was respectable enough; but Apahāravarman, who may be taken as a type of the rest, and whose career is sketched at some length, was a successful thief, intriguer, burglar, and murderer. He related his adventures to his friend and master Rājavāhana, himself far from immaculate, but who after listening to the recital of those deeds of blood and villainy was constrained to exclaim : कदमसि कार्कश्येन कर्णोद्धृत-
मवसिकान्तः ! The principal female characters are either *hetairæ* or behave as such; and we have a detailed account of the skilful manner in which one of them, to win a bet, managed to delude a simple sage, ignorant of the ways of the world, and to allure him from his wild hermitage to the dissolute court of the king, after fascinating him with a vivid description of *kāma* with its *modus operandi* ! To convince the sage of the harmlessness of *kāma*, the girl is made to quote from the Śāstras several instances of lewdness practised by the gods themselves,—a course also adopted, it would seem, by Rājavāhana to overcome the scruples of Avantisundarī, who after hearing them is made to exclaim : दयित त्वत्सादादय मे चरितार्थं श्रोतुमिच्छे !
अय मे मनसि तमोपहस्तव्या दत्तो ज्ञानवदीरः ! Again, in the story of Apahāravarman, we have (on page 83)

an account of the way in which that worthy planned the commission of adultery with Kalpasundarī, and how, whilst lying on his bed the night before, he had some prickings of conscience regarding it, which, however, he got rid of by remembering that a violation of *dharma* was approved of by the Śāstras for the sake of *artha* and *kāma*, and that in the issue there would be something to the credit side of his account ! He was further assured of the propriety of what he was about to do by the elephant-headed god, who appeared to him for the purpose in a dream !

The undoubted tendency of writings of this class is to mislead the simple-minded by suggesting, if not actually inculcating, that darkness and light, infamy and virtue, are one and the same;—and yet from streams such as this did the youths of past centuries imbibe their ideas of virtue and purity ! Well then may the scholar and lover of true morals, whilst revelling among the delights of Sanskrit, rejoice that by the bringing in of English literature purer fountains have been opened up, at which the young of India may drink without pollution. The existing vernacular literature is wholly impotent for good. In 1867 Mr. Mahādeva Gōvind Bānāde stated that the *Panchopakhyaṇa*, *Vetāl Pancherīsi*, *Sinhāsana Bālīsi*, and *Śuka Bālīsi* constitute the stock of the most popular stories of fiction in the [Marāṭhī] language, and are to be found in every indigenous school, and constitute their whole library." (Preface to *Catalogue of Native Publications in the Bombay Presidency up to 31st December 1864*.) Alas for the morals of the school-boys if formed from the teaching of those works ! The last of the four, which in the body of the Catalogue is facetiously called a book of 72 'moral stories,' might more truthfully be termed a "Manual of Immorality;" and the few grains of truth to be found in the other three are largely outweighed by the noxious matter they contain. The interdependence of nations is an acknowledged fact, and is it not meet that, coming into contact after long ages of separation, the Eastern and Western branches of the great Āryan family should minister to one another's necessity ? The swarms who migrated to India from the common home conserved with jealous care their sacred language, and, handing it down from generation to generation as a precious heirloom, now present it almost intact to the admiring gaze of the whole family. The Teutonic branch comes from its far-off home, bringing with it a newly-acquired literature and religion, and offers them in return to its Eastern brothers.

Scholars of all countries will accept with thankfulness the instalment of the *Dakṣiṇādracharita* which Dr. Bühler has presented to them. For this

edition three manuscripts, three editions, and two commentaries were collated, and the result is very satisfactory. There are only two noticeable mistakes in the text. One occurs in line 17 of page 80, where अनुवर्त्तन् is found for अन्ववर्त्तन्. Apahāra-vartman's instructions conclude with the इति of the previous clause, and he then states the fact that, in accordance with them, the woman followed Kalpa-sundarī about like her shadow. The other is in line 6 of page 86. The word अतिप्रबुध there used, and rendered in the notes "having refused strongly (to give an answer)," is incorrect. That verb means 'to press a person strongly;' but as this does not in the least suit the context, the alternative reading given in the notes, viz. प्ररुध, should by all means be adopted. The notes are exceedingly good, and the short extracts from the commentaries have been very judiciously made.

To err is human, however, and the proofs afforded in these notes that their compiler shares the common lot of humanity, shall now be indicated. In the third line of the opening verse occurs the expression ज्योतिषकाक्षदण्डः; and, applied to the first member of the compound, अक्ष clearly means 'axis,' and as referring to चक्र, 'axle.' The meaning of अक्षदण्डः should therefore be 'axis (axle),' and not 'pole-staff.' On the same page we find, as an epithet of पुण्यपुरी, the expression शस्त्रदण्डवृण्य-निस्तारितमणिगणादिवस्तुजातवस्तुनाकरमाहात्म्या, the वृण्य of which has been rendered 'shops.' This meaning is very suitable and almost necessary, but has the word elsewhere been known to mean anything more than 'a vendible article,' or 'trade'? Nothing indeed but the presence of वस्तुजात could cause the slightest doubt that it has here the common meaning of 'wares.' Do the commentaries give no extracts from any *kōśa*, so as to elucidate the point? On page 2 we have Dandin's poetic description of the beauties of Vasumatī's members owing to the union with them of Cupid's weapons, &c. when he himself was destroyed by Śiva, in the course of which comes the following:—जयस्तम्भभूते सौन्दर्यभूते विविक्तयुति जनारम्भे रम्भे चौरयुगे. Following the learned but not always accurate Professor Wilson, Dr. Bühler renders रम्भे "the two Rambhās: the nymph Rambhā and any other Apsaras," which is quite wrong. The expression रम्भोरः, 'having thighs [tapering] like the plantain-tree,' is very often met with as applied to women. There is an instance of it in *Māgha* viii. 19, which the commentator explains thus: रम्भे कदलीस्तम्भविबोद्ध यस्याः स्रग्. The charms of Avantisundarī are described by Dandin in words which differ very slightly from those employed in the former case, and here the ऊरुयुगे is said to be

formed लीलामंदिरद्वारकदलीतालित्वेन (page 30, line 2). On page 8 we have the poet's account of the great battle between the kings of Māliwa and Magadhā, and he proceeds to say: तत्र पक्षपातयोरेतयोरसंख्ये संख्ये वर्तमाने सुहृत्साहाय्यकं कुशांगो निजवलेसति विधेये विदेहे-भरो जयवता रिपुणाभिर्युद्धं कारुष्येन पुण्येन विदष्टो हतावदोयेन शु-न्येन तेन्येन सह स्वपुरगमनमकरोत्. Dr. Bühler renders the words निजवलेसति विधेये "his obedient army not being on the spot," which seems open to question. It was not likely that the king would go alone to assist his friend, and that his army was present is shown by the statement of the poet that he returned to his own city accompanied by what remained of it. What is the force of शून्येन as applied to his army? Might it not mean 'worthless,' and so show that the words quoted above should be translated 'his army not being obedient'? The rendering of मधुकरकटकटाणां (page 29, line 4) by 'sweet-singing Koils' is quite indefensible. The first member of this *Dvandva* compound means 'bees.'

The आशवाक् mentioned on page 49, line 9, has been wrongly explained by the commentator from whom Dr. Bühler quotes. The term, in this passage at any rate, evidently means 'flatterers,' i.e. 'those whose words are acceptable';—and the rendering of the word प्रतिहस्ती which occurs on the same page is equally incorrect. The learned annotator gives first the explanation of the scholium, viz. प्रतिहस्त्याचमगृह्णेरवापतिः or प्रतिहस्ती श्रुतिवेद्य इति वैजयन्ती, and then translates it 'bully,' for which there is not the slightest authority. In the interpretation of the phrase कल्पद्रुमहर्मपञ्चपाद-पादल पतंगमण्डलं (page 60, line 8) the commentary seems to have gone astray. There is no reliable evidence that आशीडः is equivalent to समूहः as stated. Its true sense would appear to be शिखामाल्ये, शिरोमूल्या, and the phrase would then be 'the sun's orb, red as a garland made of the golden foliage of the wishing-tree.'

The last point to be noticed is the interpretation of निर्माल्यं on page 71, line 4, by "worn the day before." The sentence is this: तस्मात्थिता चाहं त्वनिर्वा-यहितमिति ममैव मुखतान्मूलाच्छिष्टागुलेपनं निर्माल्यं मलिनांशुकं चान्येदुर्वाहरं. Here then are two distinct things brought by the woman, as shown by the use of the conjunction च. One of them is clearly the "soiled garment," and the other is निर्माल्यं. This word is here a noun, not an adjective, and is qualified by the preceding compound. It is found in *Māgha* viii. 60, and is thus explained by Mallinātha: निर्माल्ये मुक्तोन्मिश्रताल्यैः. This is the meaning Dandin evidently attached to it too, and the gifts pretended to have been sent by the princess to her lover

were a 'refuse garland, smeared with *pala*-juice spit from the mouth, and a dirty robe'!

TALIB-UL-ILM.

THACKER'S HAND-BOOKS OF HINDOSTAN.—A HAND-BOOK for Visitors to AGRA and its neighbourhood, by H. G. Keene. (12mo, 100 pp.) Calcutta: Thacker, Spink & Co. 1874.

A HAND-BOOK for Visitors to DELHI and its neighbourhood, by H. G. Keene. (12mo, 79 pp.) Calcutta: Thacker, Spink & Co. 1874.

These little books are revised editions of the author's Guide-books, already pretty well known to visitors to the old royal cities of Upper India. In his preface to the first the author modestly states that although he "has used his best endeavours to render his information accurate by verifying it from the best and most original sources, yet he has abstained from controversy, and does not desire to be regarded as an antiquarian authority." Mr. Keene intersperses his interesting notes with extracts from the architectural remarks of Fergusson, the eloquent descriptions of Bayard Taylor, the quaint accounts of Bernier, Finch, and De Laet, and with quotations from whatever almost has been written worth quoting in reference to the objects he describes, carefully correcting them wherever they have fallen into even a trifling inaccuracy. And his intimate acquaintance with what he describes, and his attention to native history and to inscriptions, enables him to add interesting items to our knowledge. Thus, for example, the Mosque at Agra, which has been attributed to Akbar, he notices as having, "from the obvious evidence of the inscription over the main archway," been "built by Shâh Jehân in the year 1053 H. (A.D. 1644), and to have taken five years to complete." The Boland Darwâza, or great gate to the Mosque at Faṭḥepur Sikrî, he notes was built as 'a triumphal arch' a good many years after the Durgâ or sacred quadrangle, and bears an inscription beginning thus: "His Majesty, king of kings, Heaven of the Court, shadow of God, Jalâl uddin Muhammad Khân the Emperor. He conquered the kingdom of the south, and Dândeś, which was formerly called Khân deś, in the divine 46th, corresponding to the Hijrah year 1010. Having reached Faṭḥepur he proceeded to Agra." The Mosque bears the date Hijrah 979, i.e. A.D. 1571.

To the Agra Hand-book the author has added a brief history of the Mughul Empire from A.D. 1526, and an appendix on Hindustânî Architecture, which will be read with interest. To the Delhi one, a 'Note' on the Slave and Khilji dynasties, and others on the Elephant Statues, Firuz Lâṭ, &c. Mr. Keene has a passion for spelling Oriental names in his own way—which is an attempt to render what may be called the vulgar system more uniform; but we much doubt if

Ubool Fazl, Ukbar, Udham Khan, Taj Mahul, Vikramadit, &c. will supplant the better known and more accurate Abul Fazl, Akbar, Adham Khân, &c. These Hand-books are just what the visitor requires: they point out all that is really worth seeing in and all around the two cities, and describe the buildings in brief compass, with intelligence, thorough appreciation, and rare accuracy.

ORIGIN of the DURGÂ PUJÂ, by Pratâpa Chandra Ghosh, B.A. (67 pp. 12mo.) Calcutta, 1874.

This paper, originally published in the *Hindu Patriot*, was scarcely worth reprinting. As to the 'Origin' of the Durgâ festival the writer says at the outset—"When it was first established the memory of man, it seems, runneth not to." Instead of carefully collecting and arranging the materials that exist in Hindu literature bearing upon the subject in hand, this very excursive writer flies off to theories and generalizations. "To a nation," he says, "to which language was cosmos, to which beauty was better expressed in words than in the objects described, to which the flower was lovelier when it was clothed with the tints of the imagination than when it appeared in its pristine shape, grammar was the basis of knowledge and religion. Words consequently exercised greater influence upon the Hindu mind than the works of nature or of man." Words have evidently a greater influence with this author than his subject, and so he affirms that "the Durgâ Pujâ of to-day is an evolution of many mutations," and that "in the early days when the Âryans lived somewhere near the plateau of the Belur Tâgh, its vernal form the Vasanti Pujâ was in vogue."

He concludes that Durgâ "is a grand development of a primordial Vedic idea, produced in unquestioned and unquestionable Words, which in their turn have been transformed into various forms and attributes by the authors of the *Tantras* and *Purdas*, and at last imbedded in the present system of worship."

The teaching of this little book, if it teaches anything, is pantheistic; but the author's hold of facts, as of theories, is very indefinite, and hazily hid in grandiloquent verbiage. It is a pity to find young Hindus with abilities and learning like the writer of this pamphlet taking so little care to educate themselves in habits of closer thought and more industrious research, and so rushing into print with the most baseless day-dreams, mistaking them for the results of scientific research. Yet this is not the case with Hindus only: some Europeans have set them examples they have not yet rivalled, nor are likely soon to do, in the bulk and pretentiousness of their publications, and the want of any foundation in fact for their theories.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL NOTES.

BY M. J. WALHOUSE, LATE M.C.S.

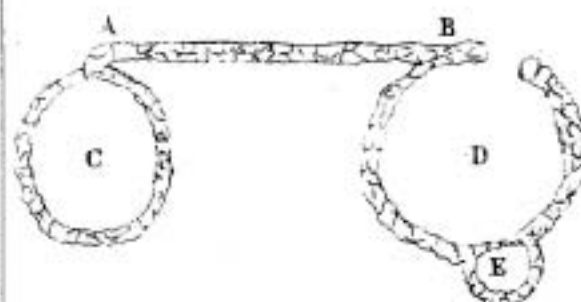
(Continued from page 48.)

IV.—Old Walls and Dykes.

BESIDE cairns, dolmens, and stone-circles, there exist upon the Nilgiri Hills other structural antiquities of a different nature, namely, remains of fortifications and dwellings, the latter resembling the hut-circles and foundations so common on Dartmoor and elsewhere in England. At present the only notice of them known to me is in Major Congreve's paper on the Antiquities of the Nilgiri Hills in No. 32 of the *Madras Journal of Literature and Science*, where (at pages 97-98) he describes the vestiges of what he conjectures may have been an old capital of the Toda people situated in that locality so sacred to picnics, Fairlawn, near Uṭakamand. On the sides and at the bottom of that most picturesque and delightful valley Major Congreve discovered fortified mounds, long lines of ramparts, an altar-rock encircled by stones, circular walls of uncemented stones enclosing spaces occupied by single and double rings of stones and heaps; and, by the stream that threads the valley, "long rows of ruined walls forming streets; and square foundations of buildings." I confess not having been able to trace out all the objects enumerated by Major Congreve, and the heaps and mounds by the stream seemed often hard to distinguish from fluvial deposits; and his conclusion, that at this nearly central spot of the Nilgiris "stood the capital of the ancient Thankawar (Toda) people," appears as uncertain as the theory that links the cairns and dolmens with the Todas. The circular stone wall enclosing a space occupied by the stone-rings is noteworthy, as corresponding with traces of prehistoric fortified villages in England, such as Grinspound upon Dartmoor, where a massive wall surrounds a space filled with hut-circles. In all countries and ages similar conditions of life give rise to similar results, and in such fortified enclosures the ancient populations lived or took refuge on the approach of danger.* In

several districts of the Madras Presidency the open plains are dotted with lofty square brick enclosures, into which less than a century ago the villagers used to fly with their families and herds on the approach of marauding Maisur or Marāṭhā horsemen, and remain till the raid had swept by. Both in Telugu and Tāmil the word *vālāsa* (వాలస) denotes "flying from home for fear of a hostile army," and in many tracts, especially in South Koimbatūr, this ominous word enters into the names of the present villages, such as Pāpavālasu, Valasupālayam, &c.,—indicating where hurried fugitives had settled and built themselves new abodes.

But returning to the Nilgiris:—at the head of the Segur Pass immediately on entering the table-land, on the north side of the road a valley runs towards the well-known 'Mālya mand'; it is enclosed between steep sides, and from its head a long narrow ridge or promontory runs along its middle towards the Segur road, ending abruptly in a steep dip, and both sides of the ridge descend in steep grassy slopes. Just before the terminal dip the saddle of this central ridge is crossed by a somewhat remarkable breastwork or fortification with walled enclosures at each end, thus:—



From A to B there is a very massive wall, twenty-five yards long and two thick, of large stones and pieces of rock, including some natural

* "The whole surface of the Khanate is covered with homesteads, scattered at intervals along the canals. Towns in Khiva are consequently not numerous, and are inhabited solely by the servants of the State, by artisans, and by traders. The homesteads of the peasants approach the description given in the *Vendidad* of those of the ancient Iranians, and may be called small square mud forts, the sides of which vary in length from twenty to one hundred

yards, according to the size of the family inhabiting them. The walls are about fifteen feet high, and within their enclosure are the different dwelling-houses—on the flat roofs of which the garnered crops are stored—and the various cattle-yards and outhouses."—*Correspondent of the Daily News*. From such homesteads fortresses and walled towns doubtless developed.

boulders cropping up on the ridge top which it spans; at C there is a considerable hollow enclosed by a rude wall, and at D a flat thickly-lichened natural surface of rock, enclosed by a massive wall, fourteen yards in diameter, with an entrance at the top between two tall natural boulders; under this, at E, there is another smaller walled enclosure, four yards in diameter. C is on the slope on one side of the ridge, and D and E on the slope on the other side. The elegant Maiden-hair Fern (*Adiantum Ethiopianum*), now become scarce about Uṭakamand, grows abundantly amid the stones of D. About a hundred yards northward of the breastwork there are many stone-rings barely visible in the grass on the top of the ridge; digging in some of them yielded no results. The position, flanked and fronted by steep slopes, is strong, and the breastwork might, temporarily at least, resist invaders coming up the Segur Pass from the Maisur plateau, and a fugitive Rāja might now and then have sought safety in the mountains,—otherwise it is difficult to imagine natives resorting to these cool heights, so hateful to them, so delightful to Europeans. But the circular appendages at each end of the breastwork seem problematical. That at D, enclosing a flat table of rock, might suggest dreams of a place of sacrifice, entered as it is through a stately rocky portal; but speculation were hazardous. I do not know that this antiquity has been noticed, but being near Uṭakamand it might be worth a visit from skilled archaeologists. Still nearer the cantonment, not far behind 'Sylk's Hotel,' at the top of a long steep slope leading downwards towards the valley and ridge already mentioned, there is another crescent-shaped breastwork, 26½ yards between the tips, with traces of smaller works at each tip.

As not unconnected with this subject, I may refer to the Kurg *kadaṅgas* or war-trenches, described in the Rev. G. Richter's *Manual of Coorg* (pp. 190-191); these are enormous trenches defended by a bank of the excavated soil, and "stretch over hills, woods, and comparatively flat countries, for miles and miles, at some places branching off in various directions, or encircling hill-tops." Mr. Richter quotes old records to show that they were constructed by ancient Rājas to fortify the principality. In South Kānara also these trenches abound; one

sees them carried in all directions for long distances, and in a manner hard to reconcile with purposes of defence or boundary;—indeed their use for either purpose must have been wholly incommensurate with the labour expended upon them. So, too, "great and massive walls eight feet high, half as thick, and extending for long distances, are found buried in deep forest on the crest of the ghāts between Kānara and Maisur, with large trees rooted in them:" the Kānarese term for such remains—*aggāru*—curiously corresponds with the Latin *agger*. Mr. Richter further quotes a passage bearing upon the matter from the *Fortnightly Review*:—"Probably no country in the world possesses so many ancient earthworks—certainly none upon such a stupendous scale—as England. They are extremely difficult of access, from the steepness of the mountain height on which they were formed. Undoubtedly this is the most ancient species of rampart known: it existed ages before the use of mural fortifications, and originated in all probability with the nations of the East." The huge dykes in Wiltshire are especially noteworthy, and as an exemplar, and perhaps the greatest, of all, I may mention the Wansdyke, which magnificent earthwork reached from the British Channel across Somerset and Wilts to the woodlands of Berkshire, and is still traceable in many places. Whether this was a *kadaṅga* or war-trench, or a boundary line between tribes, is debated by antiquaries. It has been pertinently remarked that to garrison it throughout would require an inconceivable number of men, and it has been generally regarded as a Belgic boundary. One may observe, however, that the great wall of China, which falls within the category of these prodigious works of antiquity, was certainly intended for defence. Upon the whole question of these surprising works, whether in England, Kurg, or Kānara, it may be finally added, in the words of the writer quoted by Mr. Richter, that "the organization of labour necessary for carrying them out evinces a condition of society in pre-historic times utterly incompatible with the prevailing notions on the subject." One possible supposition—repugnant enough to prevailing notions, but to which many considerations seem to point—is that the pre-historic world may have been everywhere vastly more populous than the present.

V. Folk-lore, Water-stories.

In (*Note III.* vol. III. p. 161) some similarities were adduced between popular stories in the far East and the West. The scene of those, however, was terrestrial; and it may not be amiss to supplement them with an instance or two of correspondences in beliefs in wondrous worlds beneath the water. All European fairy-lore and mediæval romance is full of marvellous regions and splendid dwellings beneath lakes, rivers, and the sea; and the Thousand and One Nights alone show that the idea was nothing strange to Eastern fancy, as witness the story told by Galmâr to the Persian king, of the sea-people, their way of life, and resplendent habitations. All know that in Ireland the O'Donoghue still lives in pomp beneath the waters of Killarney,* and may be seen gliding over them on his white horse each Mayday morning. Lough Corrib, too, another Irish lake, has an evil reputation for its inhabitants wiling mortals to their places beneath its waves. In Wales the Fair Family live beneath a lake in a most enchanting garden, full of finest fruits and flowers, with the softest music breathing continually over it. In ancient times a door in a rock near this lake used to be found open on Mayday; and those who had courage to enter were conducted by a secret passage to the garden, where they were most courteously received by the fairies, presented with fruits and flowers, and entertained with exquisite music. Visitors could stay as long as they liked, only nothing must be carried away. Once, however a sacrilegious fellow put a flower into his pocket, but on reaching common earth it vanished, and he lost his senses; since that injury the door has never reappeared. Giraldus Cambrensis, a Welsh ecclesiastical writer of the 12th century, relates that a short time before his days a circumstance occurred near Neath, which Elidurns, a priest, strenuously affirmed had befallen himself. When a boy of twelve years, he had run away from his tutor and hidden himself under the hollow bank of a river, where after two days two little pigmy

men appeared and offered to lead him to a country full of delights and sports. So they took him beneath the river into a most beautiful country, but obscure, and not illuminated with the full light of the sun. There he was brought before the king and lived long with the inhabitants, who were all of the smallest stature, but fair and handsome, ate no flesh, but lived on milk and herbs. He sometimes returned to the upper world by the way he had gone, and visited his mother, who desired him to bring her some gold, with which that country abounded; so once he stole a golden ball and brought it to her, but was pursued, and the ball snatched away, by two pigmies. After that, though he tried for a year, he could never find again the secret passage. With particular reference to this last story a copy is now given of the following letter addressed to the Editor of the "*Bengalee*" newspaper†:—

DEAR SIR,—A private letter from Shâhpur informs me that more than three years ago a boy named Ghulam Hussien, of the family of the Sayad, inhabitant of Chandra, was supposed to have been drowned on the 22nd June 1860, in the river Jhelam, one of the tributaries of the Indus. Now he has come safely to his home. His relations were of course very glad to see him. They asked him what was the matter with him. He told them in reply that no sooner he sank than he reached the bottom of the river, where he found a prodigious empire and met with its "Khiser" (name of a prophet),‡ who took him on his knees and gave him shelter. There he, with great pomp and joy, passed more than three years; and now two adherents of the king caused him to arrive at the shore of the river whence he came. Now people of every colour and creed from every creek and corner of the world are flocking to his house to see him.

Yours obediently,
MAZHIE ALI.

Calcutta, Nov. 12th, 1863.

(To be continued.)

* In Kilmôr the Nâga Râja lives in splendour under the famous lake.

† The Native Press, English and Vernacular, if watched for the purpose, might contribute much that is curious in

the way of folklore, traditions, popular stories, customs, superstitions, &c. for the *Indian Antiquary*: a vast deal doubtless exists in old files.

‡ Khiser (Khisr) is supposed to correspond to Elias.

SANTALI RIDDLES.

BY REV. F. T. COLE, TALJHARI, RĀJMAHĀL.

The Santals as a race, are very fond of telling tales and asking riddles. The young men of the villages after coming home from their work are in the habit of meeting together at the village lounging-places. Having kindled a fire, they will sit around it, and amuse themselves for hours together, either by telling tales or by asking riddles. Those who know the most tales and can tell them best are looked upon by the rest as very clever; and it is reckoned a very great acquisition to be able to tell a tale in an interesting manner. There are certain lads whose presence is invariably sought by the rest on account of their power to tell the old tales well.

Some of these stories are extremely interesting, and show a great amount of originality. These tales are more or less known by nearly every Santal.

In this paper I propose to give you a few of their riddles with appended translations:—

Harta latarre ponḍ biñ?

Translation—A white snake under a skin?

Meaning—A sword.

Seta: * jokhe: do ponea janga, ar tikiñ jokhe: do barea janga, ar ayup jokhe: do pea janga?

In the morning it has four feet, at noon two, and in the evening three feet?†

Meaning—A man.

Man in his stages of life. In the morning—in infancy, a child uses its hands and feet in the act of crawling. At noon—man, in his prime, walks without any assistance. At even—decrepit old age requires a staff.

Khekra khekra oṛa:re pak ko doneda.

In a dilapidated house they are dancing the war-dance?

Roasting Indian corn.

The Santals always roast the corn in a broken "ghara." The bursting of the corn during the process of roasting, reminds one of the wild war-dance.

Mit goṭe: ponḍ goḍa mena:a, onare horeḥ ko era?

There is a white plain, and men are sowing black vetches in it?

Meaning—Writing with ink on paper.

Hani calsoena no:oiḥ be:ena?

He went and came back again instantly.

Meaning—The eye.

Bes bes jo joakana, menkhan bang ko goḥ dārea: kana.

Fruit fully ripe, but no one is able to pluck them.

Stars.

Mit goṭe: hoṛ do bae chasa, menkhan akhaeni do jaiḥge go: bāreaa?

Who is it that although he never cultivates, yet continually carries about with him his pitchfork?

A dog, because he carries his tail with him continually, as a man does his pitchfork.

Mit tite tayo do muskil gia.

To clap one's hands, if we have only one hand, is difficult.

A man when alone can't quarrel.

Mit goṭe: dhelak moṛe goṭe bhuga: ana?

A clod of earth with five holes in it?

A head.

Mit goṭe: dangra do gota teye joma, ar lai: reye pagura?

Something, like an ox, which swallows its food whole, and afterwards chews the cud?

A handmill for grinding corn.

Mit tang machhi re bar hoṛ kin duṛupa ar bakin jopoteta?

Two sitting on one small seat, and not touching each other?

A cow's horns.

Mit goṭe: pukri talare chak khunti mena:a, ar ona khonti chhoṛe mit goṭe: chatom oṛa: ar ona oṛa: re tij mena: a. Ona oṛa: rea: sanam tij loena, oṛa ar khunti do banchaena, ar da: hoṛ bang anjetlena.

In the centre of a tank is a post, and on the top of the post is a house. In this house were many stores. It happened one day that a fire broke out. The house and the post were not destroyed; neither was the water of the tank dried up, but everything in the house was completely consumed.

The smoking of the hookah.

The tank—the cocoanut filled with water; the post—the support of the earthen bowl which holds the tobacco and the fire.

* This is an accent and not a stop. It is used to denote a peculiar click-sound common to Santali. It occurs

sometimes in the middle, as well as at the end, of words.
† This is the well-known riddle of the Sphinx.—Ed.

SCULPTURE OF THE CAVE AT LONÂD, TÂLUKÂ BHIWÂNDÎ.

BY W. F. SINCLAIR, B.A. C.S.

(Vide ante, p. 65.)

The frieze is divided into compartments of irregular size by little pilasters with a capital like a mushroom, and rectangular block for an abacus.

No. 1. next the well, contains a man seated on a square throne, left leg curled in front of him, left hand resting on left knee. Right hand raised, as if to enforce his discourse, holds a fruit or flower (lotus?). Woman standing to his right, two destroyed figures to left.

No. 2. Elephant ridden by two small figures charging four large ones, the latter as tall as the elephant. One is running away, and the elephant drives his tusk into him. The other three, though unarmed, show fight. The head of a 5th (?) shows over the elephant's.

No. 3. A tree; then elephant unriden and apparently in good temper. A man standing with his back to the elephant is showing something to another with an umbrella over his shoulder. Behind this last two others take an interest in the proceedings; one of these leads a child.

No. 4. Man seated on throne, like No. 1; his footstool resembles those in front of the centre door of the cave. On his right, woman with *chauri*. At his left, five standing and five seated figures, who seem to be listening to him.

No. 5. Man with *chauri* or weapon (?) over his right shoulder, then one who with his left leads, and with his right points to, a child. Behind the child a fourth figure seems to be blessing him, with both hands clasped and raised over the child's head. Then two in a two-wheeled horse-chariot going away from these, and one who seems to stop them.

No. 6. Chariot as in No. 5. In front of it a single horseman; then four figures running together as if to get a fifth, a child, out of the way.

No. 7. Five men and two women standing; in front of them two children together and two separate.

No. 8. Three upright figures; at their feet two children. Then two figures on thrones: that to (their) left bearded (?). Two more upright figures; then two squatting, their right hands. Forest in background (?).

No. 9. Standing figure leaning on staff or

lance. Then a foot of sculpture destroyed; next a cross-legged figure sitting on the ground; to his left two men, a child, and a woman, the last leaning against a pillar holding up her left leg in her left hand. She has long hair down her back.

No. 10. Seems to have been like No. 4, but is much mutilated. After it ten or twelve feet of carving are gone altogether.

No. 11. Spearman (?) as in No. 9; then a group of a dozen figures attending on a lady who sits on a throne, her left leg curled under her; right foot on throne and right knee raised. Below the throne a figure sitting cross-legged.

No. 12. Spearman (*dwarpa*?) as in Nos. 9 and 11. Next him a throned figure; then two sitting on the ground cross-legged; then another throned figure with footstool as in No. 4; to his left another on the ground; the next indistinct.

No. 13. Spearman again; next him a woman sitting on the ground scratching her posteriors; then the man on throne with footstool; to his left one sitting on the ground; others indistinct.

No. 14. Naked lady lying on couch surrounded by her maids; she leans her head on right hand; the left is thrown over her belly. She does not seem to be sick, like the lady in the Ajantâ fresco. A child is seated near her.

No. 15. The man on the throne attended by ten men standing, who have nearly all staves or spears; but one to his left has a sword (?) over his shoulder. To the right of the throne four children seated; to its left a child who detains another running away; beyond them a seventh child seated.

No. 16. Man and woman on two thrones attended by five standing women; one child seated.

No. 17. This is the large group opposite the well. There are twenty figures altogether; the chief is a man sitting upon a throne with egg-cup-shaped footstool; he does not use it, but has his right foot upon the throne; while the left rests upon the right knee and left hand of a woman squatting below him. To his right a woman with a *chauri*, to hers two holding up a melon (?), and to theirs one man standing, below him two men seated; to the left of the

chief figure one woman with a trident, to her a standing figure almost destroyed; below it two men sitting on stools of different heights. The rest are behind; one holds a fruit, like that held by the two mentioned above, on the palm of her hand. The men have curled wigs like barristers, the women their hair in a roll or turban not unlike in shape to a Glengarry bonnet, or the head-dress of one of the two

figures looking at a bottle in the fresco of the Dying Lady in Cave XVI. at Ajanta—*vide Ind. Ant.* vol. III. p. 269.

The right doorpost of the large door has a mortice-hole cut in it as if to receive some small woodwork; but there is no corresponding one opposite it; and as a stick in it would not cross the door, but project diagonally into the inner veranda, I am at a loss to know the use of it.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE KUḌUMĪ.*

BY THE REV. DR. R. CALDWELL, S. P. G. F. P.

The tuft of hair which Hindus are accustomed to leave when shaving their heads is called in Sanskrit the *sikha*, in Tāmiḷ the *kuḍumī*; † and for some years past a considerable number of European missionaries in the Tāmiḷ country have come to regard the wearing of this tuft as a badge of Hinduism, and hence to consider it to be their duty to require the natives employed in the missions under their superintendence to cut off their *kuḍumīs* as a *sine quâ non* of their retention of mission employment.

There are many references in Mann and other ancient Hindu books to the practice of 'tonsure,'—understanding thereby either tonsure leaving a tuft, which is the mode in ordinary use, or tonsure including the shaving off of the tuft, which is the mode prescribed for ceremonial defilements; but with one exception, so far as I am aware, those books throw no light on the question on which the lawfulness of the wearing of the *kuḍumī*, or tuft, by native Christians turns. They merely enjoin the *kuḍumī* to be worn, just as they enjoin the minutest details in bathing and dressing, but they supply us with no explanation of the reason why it had come to be worn, or of the light in which other modes of wearing the hair were regarded.

The exception to which I refer is contained in the following extract from the *Vishnu Purāṇa*, Professor Wilson's translation, page 374,—a passage which throws more light on the question at issue than any other with which I am acquainted:—

"Accordingly when he (Sagara) became a man he put nearly the whole of the Haihaya

to death, and would have destroyed the Sakas, Yavanas, Kambojas, Paradās, and Pahnavaś, but that they applied to Vasiṣṭha, the family priest of Sagara, for protection. Vasiṣṭha, regarding them as annihilated (or deprived of power), though living, thus spake to Sagara: 'Enough, enough, my son, pursue no further these objects of your wrath, whom you may look upon as no more. In order to fulfil your vow, I have separated them from affinity to the regenerate tribes, and from the duties of their castes.' Sagara, in compliance with the injunctions of his spiritual guide, contented himself, therefore, with imposing upon the vanquished nations peculiar distinguishing marks. He made the Yavanas shave their heads entirely; the Sakas he compelled to shave the upper half of their heads; the Paradās wore their hair long, and the Pahnavaś let their beards grow, in obedience to his commands. Them also, and other Kshatriya tribes, he deprived of the established usages of oblations to fire and the study of the *Vedas*; and thus, separated from religious rites and abandoned by the Brāhmaṇas, these different tribes became Mlechhas. Sagara, after the recovery of his kingdom, reigned over the seven-zoned earth with undisputed dominion."

To this passage Professor Wilson appends the following note:—

"The Asiatic nations generally shave the head, either wholly or in part. Amongst the Greeks it was common to shave the fore part of the head,—a custom introduced, according to Ptolemy, by the Abantes, whom Homer calls 'long-haired behind,' and followed, according to

* This paper has been sent by a contributor, with whom we agree in thinking it deserves 'a more permanent place than in the columns of a newspaper,' where it first

appeared. We have been obliged, however, to abridge it by omitting portions more specially addressed to missionaries.—Ed. † In Marāṭhī, *Shuṇḍī*.

Xenophon, by the Lakedæmonians. It may be doubted, however, if the Greeks or Ionians ever shaved the head completely. The practice prevails amongst the Muhammadans, but it is not universal. The Sakas, Skythians, or Tatars shave the fore part of the head, gathering the hair at the back into a long tail, as do the Chinese. The mountaineers of the Himālaya shave the crown of the head, as do the people of Kāfristān, with the exception of a single tuft. What Oriental people wore their hair long except at the back of the head is questionable, and the usage would be characteristic rather of the Teutonic and Gothic nations. The ancient Persians had long bushy beards, as the Persepolitan sculptures demonstrate."

The attentive reader of the above extract from the *Vishnu Purāṇa*, and Professor Wilson's note thereupon, cannot fail to perceive that the different modes in which the hair was ordered to be worn by Sagarā were intended to be, and were regarded as, signs of nationality or race, not as signs of religion; and this is confirmed by the separate enumeration, in a subsequent part of the paragraph, of the distinctively religious privileges which were prohibited to the races referred to. The conquered races and aboriginal tribes were to be distinguished from "the regenerate tribes," that is, from the Brāhmanas, Kshatriyas, and Vaiśyas, called collectively the dvija, or twice-born castes, by two sets of differences,—one a difference marking their nationality, race, or caste,—taking the word caste in a wide sense—and consisting in the mode of wearing the hair and beard; the other a difference marking their religious degradation, and consisting in the prohibition of the Achāras, or established usages, of oblations to fire, the use of the *Vedas*, and the residence amongst them of Brāhmaṇ priests.

The only mode of wearing the hair not described in Sagarā's injunctions is that which was already in use amongst the Āryas, or conquering, Sanskrit-speaking race,—that is, the three twice-born castes mentioned above,—viz. shaving the head leaving a lock, and shaving the beard leaving a moustache; but as we know from other authorities that this was the Āryan fashion, and as it was for the purpose of distinguishing the conquered races and aboriginal barbarians from the Āryas of pure blood that their various modes of wearing the

hair and beard were enjoined upon them, it is evident that the Āryan fashion, the only other fashion then known in India, though not expressly mentioned in the injunctions, is distinctly referred to as that from which these other modes were distinguished; and it is equally evident, therefore, that this fashion was regarded by the Āryas as a sign of their own nationality, and that it was with this idea that, whilst it was retained by themselves, it was prohibited to all other races.

It is unnecessary to hold it to be historically true that this mode of distinguishing the different races inhabiting ancient India was first introduced by Sagarā. Though Sagarā was one of the earliest kings of the Solar line, it cannot be doubted that the different modes of wearing the hair referred to, including the Āryan mode, had already come into use, in accordance with the practice of all ancient nations to distinguish themselves from their neighbours by such external differences, and that what Sagarā is represented as commanding the different races to do is merely what they had already been in the habit of doing. The Tatars, or inhabitants of Central Asia, called Sakas by Sanskrit writers, have always been in the habit, as Professor Wilson remarks, of "shaving the fore part of the head, gathering the hair at the back into a long tail, as do the Chinese." This mode of wearing the hair is identical with the kudumī of the Āryas, with the exception of the length of the tail; and as it has prevailed from the earliest times to the present day amongst three contiguous races, the Tatars, the Hindus, and the Chinese, and as it is certain that the Hindus had their origin in Central Asia, it is much more reasonable to suppose that the Hindus brought the kudumī with them from their original abodes, like the horse-sacrifice, the worship of fire, and various other usages, than that they invented it after their arrival in India.

This makes no difference, however, with respect to the light in which differences in wearing the hair were regarded in India in ancient times. Whether those differences were introduced by king Sagarā, or whether they had already been in existence, we learn from the passage quoted above that they were regarded as "distinguishing marks," not of religion but of nationality. The kudumī was the "distinguishing mark" of the Āryas, and the other

modes described were the "peculiar distinguishing marks imposed upon the vanquished races." It was regarded as intolerable that the outward and visible sign of Âryan civilization and "twice-born" respectability should be assumed by vanquished nations, much less by aboriginal barbarians. Each of those races, therefore, was required to assume, or to retain, a fashion peculiar to itself, exhibiting to the eye the distinctiveness of its nationality.

The progressive extension of the Âryan mode of wearing the hair in Southern India, in direct opposition both to the letter and to the spirit of Sa g a r a 's injunctions, will be found to confirm and illustrate in a remarkable manner the essentially national, social, or secular character of its origin. Its history in Southern India is the spread of a fashion, not of a creed. When Professor Wilson says, "What Oriental people wore their hair long except at the back of the head is questionable," he appears not to have known that the wearing of the hair long, tied up in a knot at the back of the head, nearly after the manner in which women usually wear their hair, was the ancient natural usage of the Drâviḍas, or Tâmilians, and other non-Âryan races of Southern India, as well as of all the races inhabiting Ceylon, irrespective of their religion, whether orthodox Hindus, Buddhists, or devil-worshippers, and that this usage, though to a great degree superseded by the kuḍumî, has not yet disappeared. The Brâhmanas, and other Âryas who settled in Southern India, brought with them from the North the Âryan mode of wearing the hair, but the Tâmil people generally continued, notwithstanding their adoption of the religion of the Brâhmanas, to wear their hair long, as appears from old statues and pictures and universal tradition, and have only in recent times taken to wearing the kuḍumî. If long hair had been a sign of the pre-Brahmanical faith, and the kuḍumî, as its opponents assert, a sign of Hinduism, the progress of the kuḍumî in the Tâmil country ought to run in a parallel line with the progress of Hindu orthodoxy. It cannot be supposed, however, that the Tâmilians of modern times are more zealous or more orthodox Hindus than the people by whom the great temples in the Karnâṭaka were erected. It is impossible, therefore, to suppose that the gradual abandonment by the non-Âryan tribes of the Tâmil country of their

ancient mode of wearing the hair, and their adoption of the kuḍumî instead, can have originated in motives of religion. It is evident that it is to be connected rather with the abandonment, during the same period, by the men of the higher castes, of the old Tâmilian fashion, apparent in all the old statues, of dragging down the ears and wearing long pendent earrings,—a fashion which is still retained only in Tinneveli, and only by those castes that still retain also the fashion of wearing their hair long.

The Vellâlas of the present day almost invariably wear the kuḍumî, but they admit that their forefathers, certainly not less zealous Hindus than themselves, wore their hair long. The use of the kuḍumî has now reached the middle and lower classes, but it has not yet by any means become universal amongst them, at least in Tinneveli. Some people of each of the middle and lower castes wear it, and some do not; and it is obvious that it is amongst such classes that the light in which the wearing of it is to be regarded may best be ascertained. If it is certain, as it is obvious to every one that it is, that no difference is made between people with long hair and people of the same caste with kuḍumis as regards admission to the temples and other religious privileges, and that those who have not yet adopted the kuḍumî are as zealous for Hinduism as those who have, it is difficult to avoid coming to the conclusion that the argument is at an end.

The condition of things in the Mâravâr caste, the caste to which the ancient Pâṇḍya kings of Madurâ are said to have belonged, supplies us with a good illustration. Some of them wear the kuḍumî, and others, I think a majority, do not; but the difference between the two classes is not one of religion, or even of caste. It makes merely a difference in their social position. The kuḍumî, which was originally a sign of Âryan nationality and then of Âryan respectability, has come to be regarded as a sign of respectability in general, and hence, whilst the poorer Mâravârs generally wear their hair long, the wealthier members of the caste generally wear the kuḍumî. I am personally acquainted with families of this caste, some persons belonging to which wear the kuḍumî, and others retain the more ancient mode, whilst all of them continue heathens alike. I inquired of the Zamindâr of Uta-

malī, the most influential Zamindār of this caste in Tinneveli, in what light he regarded the spread of the use of the kudumī amongst the people of his caste, when he replied that he did not regard it as in any way connected with religion, with caste, or with family, but that it was a usage which commended itself to people on account of what he called its 'becomingness,' that is, its neatness and tidiness, in comparison with the other mode, and which each person adopted or not as he pleased.

The great majority of the Shānārs who remain heathens wear their hair long; and if they are not allowed to enter the temples, the restriction to which they are subject is owing not to their long hair, but to their caste, for those few members of the caste, continuing heathens, who have adopted the kudumī,—generally the wealthiest of the caste,—are as much precluded from entering the temples as those who retain their long hair. A large majority of the Christian Shānārs, including nearly all the adherents of the missions of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, have adopted the kudumī together with Christianity, never supposing for a moment that the fashion they adopted when they became Christians could be regarded by any one as a sign of the heathenism they had left, but on the contrary regarding it, if a sign of any religion at all, rather as a sign of Christianity,—at least in their case, in so far as Christianity favoured the adoption of more cleanly, more civilized usages, and taught them, amongst other minor proprieties, that "it was a shame for a man to have long hair."

The heathen Pāllārs in Tinneveli used to wear their hair long; but most of them, without ceasing to be heathens, have recently adopted the kudumī, and the wearing of the kudumī is now spreading even amongst the Pāriārs. In short, wherever higher notions of civilization and a regard for appearances extend, and in proportion as they extend, the use of the kudumī seems to extend also. Heathens adopt it, without becoming more heathenish thereby, but merely wishing to be "in the fashion," and converts to Christianity adopt it as a practice which they believe to be more becoming, and fancy to be more consonant to Christianity than the long hair of their ancestors.

There is a caste of bankers in Tinneveli and

Madurā, called the Nāttukottēi Chēttis, who wear their hair in neither of the modes referred to, but shave the head completely, after the manner of the Muhammadans, or the manner prescribed by Sāgarā to the Yavanas. This usage of theirs cannot be meant as a distinguishing mark of religion, for there is no difference between their religion and that of their neighbours. I have lately inquired of one of them his reason for not wearing a kudumī. He replied that it was a peculiar usage amongst the people of his caste, but could not explain it any further. He considered that it had nothing to do with religion, and he was sure that the absence of it did not prevent him from entering the temples or performing any other religious duty. Indeed he was returning from the performance of worship in the temple when his opinion was asked. It would be an extraordinary thing if the members of this most wealthy, most superstitious caste were prevented, by their custom of not wearing a kudumī, from entering the temples, seeing that it may almost be said that the temples in Tinneveli and Madurā are their private property. As it has always been the custom for the people of different castes to distinguish themselves from their neighbours by differences in dress and ornaments, especially in the dress and ornaments of their women, there seems nothing extraordinary in the adoption by the banker caste referred to of a peculiar fashion of wearing their hair, or rather of shaving it off; but whatever may have been the origin of this custom of theirs, it is not easy to see how any person, knowing the existence of it, and knowing the intense orthodoxy of the people who have adopted it, can maintain that the kudumī is a sign of orthodox Hinduism.

It is a fact deserving special notice that Sanyāsis, or professed ascetics, though the most intense Hindus to be met with, never wear that which is represented as being a sign of orthodox Hinduism. They either shave off the kudumī, leaving the head bald, or they allow their hair to grow to its full length, like the ancient Rishis, plaiting it into a sort of tiara on the top of their heads, or letting it hang down their backs. Under either circumstance, no one ever heard of a Sanyāsi, though without a kudumī, being precluded from entering the temples. Their reason for not wearing the kudumī

kuḍumī is intelligible enough, whatever may be the reason of the bankers. They regard it as a sign of a secular mode of life, unbefitting persons who profess to have abandoned the world. They class it with gold ornaments and fine clothes, and would stare if they were told that what they reject as a vain beautification of the perishing body is regarded by persons who know better as a sign of their religion, which they ought to cherish.

The temple-priest wears his kuḍumī as a matter of course, because he lives in society, and because the worship he offers to the god of the temples is a gay, courtly worship, consisting in music, dancing, flowers, and lights, in avowed imitation of the ceremonies of a court. It is considered necessary that he should be in full dress when officiating in the temple, that is, that he should wear his kuḍumī: for without his kuḍumī, like a man who is unclean from a mourning, or like a Sanyāsi who has abandoned the world, he would not be regarded as suitably dressed for the performance of ceremonial worship. This is far from proving, however, that the kuḍumī is a sign of Hinduism. If it were such a sign, it would be worn not by the temple-priest, but by his far more religious brother, the ascetic.

It has been asserted that no Hindu is allowed to enter a temple without his kuḍumī; but the practice of the ascetics and the bankers, as also of the long-haired classes, clearly proves that this is a mistake. Modern Hinduism has indeed its distinguishing signs, without which no Hindu may enter the temples, but these signs—the distinguishing sectarian marks of modern Hinduism—consist in the tripundra for the Śaivas, and the nama for the Vaiṣṇavas,—signs which are well known to be essentially heathenish in their origin and signification.

It has been asserted that a Hindu who shaves off his kuḍumī, according to custom, as a sign of mourning for a near relation, is debarred, in consequence of being without his kuḍumī, from entering the temples; but this assertion also is founded on a misapprehension. He is excluded from the temple during the period of mourning, not because he is without a kuḍumī, but because he is ceremonially unclean. I have made inquiries with respect to this point, of priests attached to the temples, in order to satisfy myself of the accuracy of the statements

I had previously received from private sources, and the information I have received is to the following effect:—

When a Hindu loses his father or mother and officiates as chief mourner at their funeral, he shaves off not his kuḍumī only, but also his moustache, as a sign of mourning, or, as Hindus understand it, as a sign of the ceremonial impurity he has contracted by a near relation's death. In this condition he is precluded from entering the temples till the funeral ceremonies have been brought to an end, that is, till the sixteenth day; but this exclusion is owing, not to his being without a kuḍumī, but to his ceremonial defilement: for on the sixteenth day he shaves again his newly sprouting kuḍumī and moustache, and bathes, and on the very same day, immediately after bathing, enters the temple again and performs the usual acts of worship. As he enters the temple again on the very day that he shaves off again the rudiments of his kuḍumī, it is evident that it was his ceremonial defilement, and not the absence of a kuḍumī, which was the cause of his exclusion during the preceding sixteen days.

I may be asked to explain how it is, if the kuḍumī is not a sign of Hinduism, that the Syrian Christians on the Malabar coast shave their heads entirely, and require converts to Christianity to shave off their kuḍumī on joining their ranks; and it is the more necessary that this circumstance should be explained, because I have always been of opinion that it was from the imitation of the Syrian Christians in this particular, on the part of the Protestant missionaries labouring on the Malabar coast, that the idea of the essential Hinduism of the kuḍumī spread amongst the missionaries in the Tāmil country.

The quotation from the *Viṣṇu Purāṇa* given above will be found, I believe, to account for this apparent anomaly. The *Purāṇa* says: "He made the Yavanas shave their heads entirely," and it is evident from this that the shaving of the hair of the head entirely, without leaving a lock, was regarded as the national usage of the people referred to. The people thus described as Yavanas were the inhabitants of Western Asia. The name was derived from the Ionians, or descendants of Javan, the first Greeks with whom the Hindus became acquainted, and in the ancient Sanskrit

period denoted the Greeks in general. In subsequent times, when the Greeks were succeeded by the Arabs, it was the Arabs that were denoted by this name: so that in the later Sanskrit of the *Vishnu Purāṇa* we are to understand by *Yavanas* not the Greeks, but the Arabs, or, more widely, the inhabitants of both shores of the Persian Gulf. The name *Sonagas*, by which Muhammadans of Arab descent are sometimes called in [Tāmi], is merely a corruption of the Sanskrit *Yavanas*. The Arab and Persian *Yavanas*, whether Christians or Muhammadans, were accustomed to shave their heads, as the Hindus were well aware; and when merchants of both creeds came over, many centuries ago, from the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea, and settled on the Malabar coast, they not only brought with them their own peculiar usages as regards dress, food, &c., but received express permission from the Chera kings to retain those usages and to govern themselves by their own laws. They received permission also to make converts to their respective religions, and, what is more remarkable still, permission to incorporate those converts in their community or caste, and make them sharers together with themselves in the social privileges that had been conferred upon them, including the privilege of self-government.

This being the case, conversion to Christianity or to Muhammadanism came to be regarded as a change of caste or nationality, and not merely as a change of religion. The convert ceased to be a member of any Hindu caste. He ceased even to be a Hindu, and became, as far as it was possible for him to become, a Syrian or an Arab,—that is, he became a member of the Syrian or the Arab caste. He adopted not only the Christian or the Muhammadan creed, but the shaven head and the dress of the *Yavanas*. He might originally have been a Polia slave, but if he was thought worthy of being accepted as a convert, he was thought worthy also of being admitted to the caste name and the caste rights of his new friends, and would not even be refused the privilege of connecting himself with them by marriage. The absence of the *kuḍumi* amongst the Syrian Christians of the Western coast, as also amongst the Indian Muhammadans generally (as adherents

of an Arabian religion and of Arabian usages), is therefore to be regarded, not as a proof of their regarding the *kuḍumi* as a sign of Hinduism as a religion, but as a sign and memento of their admission into the nationality or caste of the Syrians and Arabs by whom they were converted, and of their adoption, as was not only natural but unavoidable under the circumstances, of the Syrian or Arab, that is, of the *Yavana* modes of life, including dress and the fashion of wearing the hair.

It was natural that the Protestant missionaries on the Malabar coast should advise their converts to follow the practice of their Syrian predecessors in this particular, though the imitation of their practice has only been partial after all, seeing that it does not include a change in nationality of their converts; but it does not follow that the practice of the Syrians should be followed by missionaries in other parts of India, where the Syrians are unknown, and where it has never been considered to be necessary or desirable that converts should adopt a new nationality,—without the adoption of which the imitation of the Syrians in one particular alone seems partial and arbitrary.

The example of the Syrians and Arabs was followed to the letter by the Roman Catholic missionaries who settled in the same neighbourhood in Goa, in the sixteenth century. The converts made by the Portuguese in Goa adopted a new nationality and a new dress, as well as a new religion. They assumed the dress and customs of their Portuguese patrons, and are called 'Portuguese' to the present day, though mostly of unmixed native descent.

A similar plan is acted upon still by the Muhammadans of both coasts on the reception into their ranks of converts to their creed.* The converts occasionally made by Muhammadans, whether from Hinduism or from Christianity, change not only their religion, but also their nationality or caste, and, as a sign of this change, adopt the Muhammadan, that is, the *Yavana* dress and mode of wearing the hair, including especially the 'skull-cap,' the equivalent of the Arabian or Turkish 'fez;' and so well is this understood, that in the common talk of the [Tāmi] people a convert to Muhammadanism is not said to have become a Muhammadan, but to

* Speaking of Tipu Sultan, *Fr. Bartolomeo* says that during his ravages in the Malayālam country "the pagans were

deprived of the token of their nobility, which is a lock of hair called *cuḍumi*;" *Voyage to East India*, p. 141.—C. E. K.

have 'put on the skull-cap.' So thoroughly is his nationality, or caste, as it is called in India, supposed to be changed by this process, that he not only acquires the privilege of intermarriage with Muhammadans, no matter what his original caste may have been, but claims, and has conceded to him by Hindus, the same rights, as regards the use of wells, &c., that the original Muhammadans possess.

As it is the tendency of Hinduism to connect every act in life, every member of the body, and every portion of the dress with religion or caste, it is not to be expected that the *kuḍumī* should escape so universal and so inveterate a tendency. Let it only be granted that the wearing of a tuft of hair on the back of the head has come into general use,—whatever be its origin, it will necessarily follow that it will not merely be cherished with the affection of personal vanity, as amongst the Chinese and Japanese, but that so superstitious a people as the Hindus will occasionally use it for superstitious purposes. This does not prove, however, that it is either heathenish in its origin or heathenish in its nature. It does not prove, therefore, that it is a sign of heathenism. It only proves that Christians should be careful not to put it to superstitious uses.

It may be objected that not only is the *kuḍumī* put to some sort of use in superstitious ceremonies, but that the very first time it is assumed, or rather the first time the hair of a child's head is shaven off, leaving the *kuḍumī*, superstitious ceremonies accompany the operation. This is undoubtedly true, but only to a very limited extent. When a Brāhmaṇ boy's head is shaved for the first time, the operation is performed on a certain month and day fixed by a rule, and a Brāhmaṇ lays hold of the tuft of hair that is to be left, and commences the operation before the razor is applied by the ordinary barber. A feast is made on the occasion, and this is called in Tāmīl the *kuḍumī* wedding, but in Sanskrit simply *kṣauṛa*, 'tonsure,'—nothing being required but tonsure by the sacred text. This usage does not prevail amongst other castes; it is not easy to see, therefore, how other castes can be made responsible for a peculiar usage kept up amongst that peculiar people the Brāhmaṇs. Even amongst the Brāhmaṇs, it may be added, the superstition consists not in the *kuḍumī* itself, which was

worn before ever Brāhmaṇs were heard of, but in the ceremonies by which the wearing of it is initiated.

Every period of a Hindu's life, especially of a Brāhmaṇ's, from his birth, and even from before his birth, to his death, is attended by a host of ceremonies. Ceremonies are performed the first time his ear is bored, but no one will say that the boring of the ears is in itself a heathenish operation. When a boy is sent for the first time to school, ceremonies are performed and a feast is given, but no one thinks it a heathenish thing to send a child to school because heathenish ceremonies are performed by heathens when their children are sent. If the thing itself is not distinctively heathenish, and the heathenism connected with it is an unnecessary ceremonial superadded by heathens, all that ought to be required of Christians is to avoid the superadded ceremonial.

It is not sufficient to prove a thing to be heathenish to prove that it is done by heathens. It is necessary to prove also that it is heathenish in its origin and history, and that the heathenish intent with which it is done by heathens belongs to the essence of its use. Hindus are accustomed to put flowers in their hair at marriages, and, the *kuḍumī* being the only portion of the hair of the head they retain, the flowers are stuck in their *kuḍumīs*. I do not consider this practice heathenish either in itself or in its intent. I do not consider it, therefore, to be a practice from which Christians should think themselves debarred. On the other hand I admit that it is a heathenish practice to put flowers in the hair when about to perform certain idolatrous acts of worship, because it is done with a heathenish intent, with the intent of doing honour to an idol. Apart from this intent, there is surely nothing heathenish or superstitious in wearing flowers in the hair. . . .

The great majority of the middle and lower classes in the Tāmīl country, including those castes to which most of our converts belong, are worshippers of Śiva, and as such they worship Śiva's son, Gaṇeśa (the Tāmīl *Pilleyār*), as well as or more than Śiva himself. One of the ceremonies performed in the worship of this divinity consists in the worshipper's laying hold of his ears (not Gaṇeśa's, but his own)—the left ear with the right hand, the right ear with the left hand. Herein we may discern a danger to

which the young convert's faith is exposed; and we have now learnt, from the instance of the *kuḍumī*, how such dangers are to be averted. Cut off the convert's *kuḍumī*, and a rarely occurring temptation ceases: cut off his ears, and one of the most common temptations of his daily life is at an end!

I am surprised that the opponents of the *kuḍumī* have not yet commenced to put down the use of the *tāli*. This is the Hindu sign of marriage, answering to the ring of European Christendom; and, on the principle on which the opposition to the *kuḍumī* is based, it does not appear to me to be consistent with common fairness to allow the *tāli* to escape, seeing that amongst heathens it has always the image of Gaṇeśa or some other idolatrous emblem impressed upon it, and that it is always tied round the Hindu bride's neck with idolatrous ceremonies. I have known a clergyman refuse to perform a marriage with a *tāli*, and insist upon a ring being used instead. At first sight this would seem to be the right course to take, to preserve the principle which is at stake inviolate, but a little further consideration will show that the scrupulous conscience can find no rest for itself even in the ring: for if the ring is more Christian than the *tāli*, it is only because its use amongst Christians is more ancient. Every one knows that the ring had a heathen origin, and that for this reason it is rejected by the Quakers, who for the same reason, in perfect consistency with their principles, reject the use of our very decidedly heathenish names of the days of the week and of the months.

I do not wish to be understood as defending the retention of the *kuḍumī*, or advocating its use, considered as a question of taste. Regarding the *kuḍumī* merely as a mode of wearing the hair, I do not admire it, and if it were only admitted that the question at issue is not a question of theology or of Christian morality, but a question for the hair-dresser, I should probably turn round and argue on the other side. It would doubtless have been admired by our grandfathers, who wore a *kuḍumī* themselves, viz. the queue or pigtail, which succeeded the wig, and who certainly could not have required native converts to Christianity to cut off what they themselves wore. The mode of hair-cutting in

rogue amongst us at present was introduced by the French revolutionists, and was regarded with dislike for a time by old-fashioned people as a sign of Jacobin tendencies. It outlived that suspicion, and came to be universally regarded as a great improvement upon the pigtail, and still more upon the wig. I am not sure, however, that it is destined to resist for ever the changes of fashion; and, judging from the low negro-like look it gives to the natives who have been induced to adopt it, I should fancy that it is somehow out of harmony with nature, and that a more becoming fashion may yet be discovered. A native with a good head never looks so well, in my judgment, as when he shaves his head entirely, after the simply severe style of the ancient Greek philosophers, and I should suppose that in this warm climate no other style can feel so cool and comfortable. On the other hand, I never regard a native with more pity, from a dressing-room point of view, than when I see him imitating, or rather caricaturing, our present English fashion,—letting his straight black hair grow to twice the length of ours, though innocent of the use of brush and comb, and plastering it over with oil till it shines in the dark and smells in the sun! I am not disposed, however, to dogmatize in matters of fashion, knowing that tastes differ. It is a matter of indifference to me how people wear their hair, provided they take care to keep it clean. All I argue for is that it should be regarded as a matter of taste, not a matter of religion, and that if we dislike the *kuḍumī* and wish natives to cut it off and to shave their heads, we should appeal, not to their consciences, but to their wish to improve their looks.

None of the arguments I have used in defence of the lawfulness of native Christians retaining the *kuḍumī*, if they like, can fairly be made use of in defence of caste. . . . Caste is anti-social in its own nature, irrespective of its origin and history, and is therefore anti-Christian; whereas the *kuḍumī*, being admitted to be in itself a tuft of hair and no more, if it is not heathenish in its origin and history, the assertion that it is heathenish is baseless, and the wearing of it is no more opposed to Christianity or social duty than the wearing of the moustache.

Courtelum, Tinnevely, 7th Sept. 1867.

A GRANT OF KING GUHASENA OF VALABHĪ.

BY J. G. BÜHLER, PH.D.

The subjoined transcript and translation of the second half of a Śāsana issued by king Guhasena have been prepared according to a copper-plate presented by the Kārbhārī of Wallā to Lieut. F. B. Peile, of H. M. 26th Regt. N. I., and lent to me by the owner. The plate apparently forms part of the finds made during the last cold weather, when, according to information received, eleven pieces were dug up. Its size was originally twelve inches by nine; but it has been badly injured on two sides. Fortunately the missing pieces contained little more than the well-known honorific epithets of the grantor. Only in line 8 an important word, which described the position of the convent of Duḍḍā, has been lost.

The letters of this grant are smaller than those of the Śāsana of Dhruvasena I, but larger than those in the inscriptions of Dharmasena II and the later kings. The form of the letters *ḍ*, *ṛ*, *k*, and of the attached *u*, which in Dhruvasena's plate is angular, has become rounded. The tail of the *l*, in several cases, passes over and nearly envelopes the whole letter. Still there is a great difference between the characters of this plate and those belonging to the times of the later kings, where the form of the writing greatly resembles current hand.*

Imperfect as this grant is, it has nevertheless a great interest. For, firstly, it fixes approximately the date of one of the earlier kings of the Valabhī dynasty. Secondly, it gives an important contribution towards the history of Buddhism in Valabhī. We find that the convent founded by Duḍḍā, the sister's daughter of Dhruvasena I, continued to flourish and to enjoy the protection of the rulers. The mention of the eighteen Buddhist schools which were represented in Duḍḍā's convent is also of importance, because it confirms a statement made by Hiuen Tshang. The latter says (*Mémoires*,

II. 162) that in the hundred convents of Valabhī the Hinayāna was chiefly studied. Now the eighteen schools of our grant can only refer to the Hinayāna, because this division of Buddhism is known to have been cultivated in that number of Nikāyas.†

A third point which deserves attention is the statement that this grant was written by *Skandabhāṭa*, the minister of peace and war. This same person executed also the grants of Guhasena's son *Dharmasena II*, and of his fourth descendant *Dharmasena IV*. The grants of *Dharmasena I* are dated ७७८, which Professor Bhāṇḍārkar has rightly interpreted to mean 272,‡ and ७९७ which I read 277;§ and that of *Dharmasena IV* २७५, read by Professor Bhāṇḍārkar as 326. Now this gives *Skandabhāṭa* a tenure of office lasting fifty-four years. Our new grant shows that he held office under *Guhasena* also. If the second sign in the date of our grant is taken with Professor Bhāṇḍārkar for 50,|| the grant is dated in 256: consequently *Skandabhāṭa* must have been at least seventy years in office. It seems very improbable that a man should last so long; I prefer, therefore, to take the २ for 60. The fact is that we know nothing for certain regarding the signs for 50 and 60, and the one unknown sign २ which occurs on the Valabhī plates may stand, for all we know, for either. The above-mentioned facts regarding *Skandabhāṭa* appear, however, to make it more probable that it must be read as 60.

Transcript.

[समदपरगजघटास्तोदनप्रकाशितस] च्वनिकपः [न] न्य-
भावप्रणतारविचूडारत्रयभा [संसकपादनखरदिम]—१—
[संहतिः सकल]स्मृतिप्रणीतमार्गसम्यक्परिपालनप्रजा[रञ्जना-
दन्त्यैराजशब्दोक्त]—२—
[कान्तिस्थैर्व्यगामीर्थ] बुद्धिसंपद्भिः स्मरशशाङ्कद्विराजोद-
धितिविशगुरुधनेशान [विशपानः शरणा]—३

* The plate has been photographed, and copies will be sent to the learned societies interested in Oriental questions.

† Wassilief, *Der Buddhismus*, p. 64. I will mention here that another statement of Hiuen Tshang's (II. 164), viz. that near the town there was a convent built by O-tehe-lo, is confirmed by my grant of Dharmasena II. The Sanskrit name of the founder is, however, not *Acharya*, but *Āchārya*.

‡ *Jour. B. Br. R. As. Soc.* X., 69 et seqq.

§ This date is taken from my unpublished grant, and I give it here merely in order to show that Professor Bhāṇḍārkar's interpretation of the sign for the decade is correct. For the sign which occurs on my plate resembles closely the sign for 70 in the Junigadh inscription of Rudradāman.

|| *Loc. cit.* p. 71

[महा]महप्रदानरतया विपवदपास्तोपस्तकार्यफलः प्रत्येना-
धिकार्यप्रदानान् [नितविद]—४—

सुहृन्मणविदपः पादचारैव सकलभुवनमण्डलाभोगमनोदः
परममहेश्वरः—५—

श्री [महा] राजगुहसेनः कुशली सर्वनेवायुक्तकविनियुक्तकद्रा-
हिकमहतरचाटभटधुवाधिकरणिकदाण्ड—६—

भोगि[क]बैरोद्धरगिकराजस्थानीपकुमारामास्यादीनन्याश्च य-
थासंबद्धमानकान् समाज्ञापयत्यस्तु वस्तुविहितं—७—

—तलसन्निविष्टदुष्टादकारितदुष्टामहविहारे नानाविगम्भाग-
लाष्टादशानिकावाभ्यन्तराकाश्याय्यभिभुसं—८—

शापयसाचलदनशय्यासनग्लानप्रत्ययभेषज्यशुपयोगार्थमागु-
मंवीप्रविश्यापिलकस्त्रीप्रविशशमीवद्वाटक...—९—

तथा मण्डलीदंगै सङ्गमनकं देवकहारे नदीयं। तथा चोस्स-
री। एवमैतद्दामचतुष्टयं सोपारिकरं सवातभूत—१०—

धान्यदिरण्यदेयं सौम्यवमानविष्टिकं सर्वराजकीयाहस्तप्रक्षेप-
वीरं भूमिच्छिद्रन्यायेन मया माताभिरात्मनश्च [हि]—११—

कानुभिकयथाभिलषितफलावाप्तये उदकसम्मोनातिसृष्टं यतो
स्पोनितया शाक्याय्यभिभुसंस्थिता भुंजतः कृपतः क

[पय]—१२—

तो वा न कैश्चित्प्रतिषेधे नचित्तव्यमागामिभद्रनृपतिभिश्चास्म-
द्वैश्वरानित्यन्तेष्वश्रयाण्यस्थिरं मानुष्यं सामान्यं च भूमिदा-

[न]—१३—

फलमवगच्छद्विरयमस्महापोनुमन्तव्यः परिपालयितव्यश्च यक्षे-
नमाच्छिदादाच्छिद्यमानं वागुमोदेत स पंचा [६]—१४—

कर्माफलसंयुक्तस्यान् जय्या च वनेमानः पंचभिर्महापातकैस्तो-
पपातकैस्तंयुक्तस्यावपिच ॥ यानीह दारिद्र्यमा [ज]—१५—

रेन्द्रेद्वेनानि धर्मायतनीकृतानि । निर्माल्यवान्तप्रतिमानि
वानि को नाम साधुः पुनरावदीत ॥ बहुभिर्वैसुभा भुक्ता

[राजभिः]—१६—

सगरादिभिः । वस्यवस्य यदा भूमिः तस्यतस्य तदा फलमिति ॥
समुदाज्ञा ॥ स्वहस्तो मम महाराजश्री [गुहसेन]—१७—

स्य लिखितं संघिविघ्नहाधिकरणधिकृतस्कन्दभट्टेन ॥ सं
२६६ ७८५ माव वदि— १८—

Translation.

(His son is) the devotee of Mahēśvara, the illustrious Mahārāja Guhasena, who proved his courage by splitting the temples of the rutting elephants of his enemies, the rays of whose footnails mingle with the glitter of the crest-jewels of his enemies who are prostrate before him in consequence of his power, who gives its proper significance to his title rāja (winner of hearts), since he won the hearts of his subjects by carefully keeping to the path prescribed in all the Smṛitis, who in beauty surpasses Cupid, in splendour the moon, in firmness the Lord of mountains, in depth the ocean, in wisdom the preceptor of the gods, in riches the Lord of wealth,—who, intent on affording safety to those seeking refuge with him, cares not a straw for his own interest,—who rejoices the hearts of the learned and of his affectionate friends by granting them more wealth than their prayers demand,—who is as it were the incarnate delight of the whole world. (He,) being in good health, addresses these commands to all his servants and officials, heads of towns, heads of villages, fortune-tellers, soldiers, his faithful judges,* police officers, receivers of revenue, thief-catchers, princes and ministers representing royalty and so forth, as well as to (all) others whatever their connexion (with the government) may be :

Be it known unto you, that in order to obtain for my parents and for myself benefits in this life and the next according to my desires, I have granted, (confirming my gift,) by pouring out water, to the community of the reverend Śākya monks, belonging to the eighteen schools (of the Hinayāna) who have come from various direc-

1. About fifteen letters have been lost in the beginning, and nine or ten at the end. They have been supplied from Prof. Bhāṇḍārkar's plate, *Jour. B. Br. B. As. Soc. X.* 77. The restoration of the following lines is made from the same source.

4. Read तुगवद् ° instead of विगवद् °.

6. The sign used in the original before कुशली is the Jhramāliya.

7. One side of the horizontal stroke of क in भोगिक is visible. The word occurs also in the Breach plates of the Gujara kings. Akshara 32 is half obliterated.

8. The first three letters may have been वलभी. An is still visible, and below it a letter bearing some resemblance to a म, as well as a fragment of a ल or व before it.

10. एवमैत ° is a lapsus styli. Read एवमेत °.

12. स्थिता ° is a lapsus styli for स्थित्वा.

16. The sign used in साधुः is the Upādhamāliya.

* I am doubtful about the correctness of my renderings of धुवाधिकरणिक and भोगिक: Though धुव means 'firm,' 'faithful,' and आधिकरणिक 'a judge,' it is nevertheless not improbable that the compound has a technical meaning. भोगिक occurs in Prof. Dowson's and my Gujara plates, connected with rājashmanta on the one side, and viśayapati on the other side. In those documents it may bear the sense of 'governor of a province,' as Prof. Dowson translates it. At all events it seems to denote a person of high rank. In this plate, where it is connected with the police officers and thief-catchers, the latter being probably our Pagrees (Pagle), it must refer to an official of low rank. As भोग means also 'revenue,' I conjecture that भोगिक denotes the village-accountants and receivers of revenue, called now Talāts or Kulkarāts. The *Pet. Diet.* gives for भोगिक only the meaning 'groom,' but for भोगिन् 'governor of a province' and 'head of a village.'

tions to the great convent of Duḍḍā built by the venerable Duḍḍā and situated . . . in order to procure food, clothing, seats, remedies and medicines* for the sick, and so forth, the following four villages:—

Samṣṭapattavāṭaka, situated between *Ānumanjī* and *Pippalarunkharī*, and *Saṅgamānaka* in the township of *Maṇḍali*, as well as *Naddāya*, and *Chossarī* in *Deṭakahāra*,† with . . . , with . . . with the revenue in dry and green (produce), corn and gold, and with the right to forced labour arising (therefrom), according to the analogy of the familiar instance of the ground and the cleft.

Wherefore no obstruction should be made to him who, by virtue of his belonging to the community of the reverend Śākya monks, enjoys (these villages), tills (the land) or causes it to be tilled. And the future worthy kings of our race, understanding the instability of power, the frailty of humanity, and the benefits derived

from gifts of land which are common (to all protecting them), should consent to and protect this our grant; and he who takes it, or allows it to be taken away shall obtain the punishments of the five (kinds of) evil acts, and, living in the three (kinds of) existences, shall be guilty of the five mortal sins as well as of the minor sins.

(It has) also (been declared:) What good man would resume property which out of fear of poverty kings have given for pious purposes, and which resembles leavings and vomited (food)?

Many kings as *Sagara* and others have enjoyed the earth. To him who possesses the earth belongs the fruit thereof.

My own verbal order. My own sign-manual, (that) of the illustrious Mahārāja *Guharasa*. Written by *Skandabhāṭa*, charged with the ministry of war and peace, in the dark half of Māgha 266.

SANSKRIT AND OLD CANARESE INSCRIPTIONS.

BY J. F. FLEET, Esq., B.C.S.

In the Sanskrit and Old Canarese inscriptions, on walls and pillars of temples, on detached stone-tablets and monumental stones, and on copper-plates, of the Canarese Districts of the Bombay Presidency and the neighbouring territories of Madras, Maisūr, and Haidarābād, there exist abundant materials for compiling a tolerably detailed and connected historical account of that part of the country for a period of seven or eight centuries from about the middle of the fifth century A. D., and at the same time for illustrating the gradual develop-

ment of the modern forms of its vernacular language.

But little, however, has as yet been done towards bringing these materials within the reach of those who can utilize them.

Some forty years ago a collection of manuscript copies of five hundred and ninety-five of these inscriptions was presented in triplicate by Mr. (now Sir Walter) Elliot, of the Madras Civil Service, to the Royal Asiatic Society of London and the Branch Societies of Bombay and Madras.‡ These copies were made by

* For the translation of the word प्रत्यय compare the *Petersburg Dict. s. v. प्रत्यय* S.

† The translation of प्रवेष्टा requires justification. In the Branch plates the phrase *achṭabhatā prāveṣṭa* or *chṭabhatā prāveṣṭa* occurs, and the word means 'to be entered,' being the fut. passive part. of *viś* with *pen* 4-5. Here it seems to have the same meaning. It is clear from the statements about the other three villages that the compound *Ānumanjīprāveṣṭa-pippalarunkharīprāveṣṭa* contains something about the situation of *Samṣṭapattavāṭaka*. I take therefore, *Ānumanjī* and *Pippalarunkharī* to stand in the ablative case. *Pippalarunkharī* was assigned to the convent of Duḍḍā by *Dhruvasena* I. *Ind. Ant.* IV. p. 106.

‡ From some correspondence on the subject that I have perused, it appears that the Elliot Collection comprised altogether 1,339 stone and copper-plate inscriptions; a large number of these, however, were in the Telugu language and characters. The series presented to the three Societies appears to have included all the Sanskrit and Old Canarese inscriptions, and a few in the Telugu language. It appears also that Sir W. Elliot's translations were made by 'Kadambari Jagannathan Guru' and 'Vavilala Sub-

barava', who in 1871 held respectively the posts of Treasury Deputy-Collector in the Gōdāvarī District and Sub-Magistrate of 'Polavaram.' One of the men employed by Sir W. Elliot to decipher and copy the inscriptions was 'Chiperi Jeyaramada,' who, in 1871, was a Cattle-pound Gumista on Rs. 10 per mensem at the 'Bapatle' Tālukā Kach'ri. This man had kept private copies of 873 Telugu inscriptions out of the whole collection, and measures were taken by the Government of Madras to secure these copies; but with what ultimate result I have not been able to ascertain. Another man thus employed was Nāgappa Sāstri, now deceased, of Rōn in the Dūāravāḍi District; a few duplicates of the copies made by him for Sir W. Elliot were shown to me by his son Siddhappa; they were very inaccurate and incomplete, and seemed to be anything but trustworthy. The same correspondence states that the Elliot Collection was "completely destroyed by salt water on the voyage to England in a vessel laden with sugar;" this denotes probably Sir W. Elliot's own copies of the Telugu inscriptions, and perhaps the copy of the Sanskrit and Old Canarese inscriptions intended for the London Society. Some of the original copper-plates would appear to be still in existence in England.

native hands, and were in many cases of doubtful accuracy, but the collection would have been a most useful guide in prosecuting further researches of this kind. Recent inquiries, however, after this collection have resulted in the discovery that the copies presented to the Branch Societies have been entirely lost sight of and cannot now be traced; and the copy presented to the London Society is virtually inaccessible in this country. All that now remains to the public of Sir W. Elliot's labours consists of his old Canarese Alphabet* and the Paper on Hindu Inscriptions† in which he summarizes the historical results of his researches; and these even are now out of print and very hard to be procured.

Another very extensive MS. collection, comprising much information of a similar kind, was made in Southern India by the late Colonel Mackenzie, and is still in existence at Madras. This collection, again, has never yet been made accessible to the public; but there are hopes that before very long a general summary of its contents, and selected portions of it in detail, will be published by the gentleman‡ in whose charge it now is on behalf of Government.

These are, I believe, the only large collections that have ever been made. Researches by other inquirers have been made public, but they are mostly of a detached kind, and, together with the reports on the contents of the Mackenzie Collection that have been issued, are scattered over the pages of the journals of literary societies in such a way as to be accessible, and frequently to be known, only to those who have the fortune to live in the neighbourhood of large libraries.

In other parts of the empire activity is being displayed by Government in respect of the preservation and publication of ancient remains and records. In the north of India there is an Archaeological Department which publishes, at the same time with the other results of its inquiries, all inscriptions that are met with. In Ceylon an Oriental scholar has recently been deputed by the Government to examine, copy, and publish the rock inscriptions. As indicated above, another Oriental scholar is now at work

in Madras in connexion with the Mackenzie Collection. And in this Presidency Mr. Burgess has latterly been employed on the duty of investigating and reporting on the Archaeological Remains.

The Canarese Country, however,—the richest of all in inscriptions,—is still left to remain the field of casual and intermittent private research of necessarily a very imperfect kind. During a short tour through part of the Canarese Country in the early part of last year, Mr. Burgess took advantage of the opportunity thus afforded him, and prepared and has published § excellent facsimiles of over thirty of its inscriptions. But his duties have now taken him to another part of the Presidency, and a long time must probably elapse before he will visit the Canarese Country again.

The only record of any Government action in respect of the inscriptions of the Canarese Country is to be found in a photographic collection of about ninety inscriptions, on stone-tablets and copper-plates, at Chitrakaldurga, Balagāhve, Harihar, and other places to the south, made by Major Dixon, H. M.'s 22nd Regiment M.N.I., for the Government of Madras and published by that Government in 1865.¶ Not long ago, it is true, it was in contemplation by the Bombay Government to employ an officer on the special duty of preparing for publication a reliable collection of Canarese inscriptions; but,—on the ground that, as the basis of the work was to have been the Elliot Collection, the disappearance of that collection renders it impossible for anything further to be done,—the project seems to have been abandoned, for the present at all events.

To Major Dixon's collection mentioned above we have to add a series of about sixty photographic copies of inscriptions, from negatives taken by the late Dr. Pison, Bo.M.S., and Col. Biggs, R.A., and edited in 1866 by Mr. Hope, Bo.C.S., for and at the cost of the Committee of Architectural Antiquities of Western India. A synopsis of the contents of this work, by the late Dr. Bhanu Dāji, is to be found at pp. 314—333 of No. xxvii. vol. IX. of the *Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic*

* Published at Bombay in 1833.

† Published originally in No. VII. of the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, and reprinted, with the corrections and emendations of the author, in vol. VII. of the *Madras Journal of Literature and Science*.

‡ Dr. Oppert.

§ *Report of the First Season's Operations of the Archaeological Survey of W. India, in the Belgaum and Koldgi Districts* (India Office, 1874).

¶ Conf. Ind. Ant., vol. II. p. 184.

Society; many of the notices, however, are very imperfect, and some are full of inaccuracies that may mislead.

These two works contain all that is as yet generally available towards a history of the Canarese Country and its language. And, as, in addition to many of the inscriptions thus published being altogether insignificant, and in addition to some in one of the two books being only different copies by another hand of those in the other, the photographs are on a very small scale,* and frequently are so indistinct in details as to be practically illegible, the field thus offered for investigation becomes of a very limited extent.

Official duties leave but little leisure for private study; but, as a commencement towards placing on record for general reference a series of Old Canarese inscriptions in a connected form, I propose publishing from time to time in the pages of this journal such of the contents of these books as I have leisure to look into. Occasionally I may add inscriptions copied from the originals by myself or under my direct superintendence. And, whenever I am able, I shall give such notes of my own on the subject of inscriptions at other places as may tend to elucidate the subject-matter of the text, or to indicate where further information bearing on it may be found. If others, to whom other copies of these two collections may be available, will coöperate, such of the inscriptions as can be satisfactorily edited from the photographs may soon be disposed of, and a great deal of useful information be placed on record.

According to the language used, the inscriptions of the Canarese Country may be distributed over three periods. In the older inscriptions the language is as a rule entirely Sanskrit; occasionally Old Canarese words are introduced, but they are not of frequent occurrence, and from their isolation it is often difficult to determine their meanings. In the next stage, both the Sanskrit and the Old Canarese languages are used conjointly, the latter usually predominating; frequently the transition from the Sans-

krit to the Canarese language and idiom, and *vice versa*, is very abrupt. Lastly, the more modern inscriptions are entirely in the Old Canarese language and idiom, with of course a copious intermixture of pure as well as corrupted Sanskrit words; the opening invocations and the closing benedictive and imprecatory verses are sometimes pure Sanskrit and sometimes Canarese. Speaking generally, the pure Sanskrit period lasts up to about the middle of the ninth century A.D., the mixed Sanskrit and Old Canarese period lasts from then up to about the middle of the eleventh century, and the pure Old Canarese period then commences; the limits of these periods may be more definitely fixed when a greater number of the inscriptions have been examined in detail. Pure Sanskrit inscriptions are of course to be met with down to the last, but, after the first period specified above, they are the exception and not the rule; it should be remarked, however, that copper-plate inscriptions are almost always Sanskrit, whatever their age may be. The inscriptions of the earliest period are not very numerous; by far the majority belong to the second and third periods.

As regards the characters used, the earlier inscriptions of the pure Sanskrit period are in the old Cave-alphabet, the source of both the modern square Dēvanāgarī characters and the round Canarese characters. The Old Canarese alphabet began to be elaborated, by rounding off the angular points of the characters of the Cave-alphabet, towards the end of the pure Sanskrit period. By about the middle of the tenth century it assumed a defined and settled character. About the commencement of the thirteenth century the characters began to deteriorate and to pass into the modern forms; in some respects the modern Telugu alphabet represents, more closely than the Modern Canarese alphabet does, the Old Canarese alphabet of the third period specified above. Pure Sanskrit inscriptions of the latter part of the first period and of the second and third periods are frequently engraved in the Old Canarese

* For instance,—Plate No. 20 of Major Dixon's work contains a photograph 9½" high by 4½" wide of an inscription of ninety-four lines averaging about fifty letters each on a stone-tablet 11½" high by 3½" broad. The original is in the most excellent order, and must be legible from beginning to end with ease and certainty; but, so small are the letters in the photograph, that it is a very difficult matter to decipher and edit the contents. To photograph

inscriptions successfully, the extreme length of the plate must be applied to the breadth, and not the height of the original, which must then be copied in a succession of plates, the lowest two or three lines of the highest plate being repeated as the highest lines of the next plate, and so on, to prevent confusion and the possible omission of any part of the original.

SILASASANAM AT BALLIGAMVE.



characters; but the reverse of this is of rare occurrence. The later Sanskrit inscriptions are usually in the characters which I know by the name of the 'Kāyastha' or 'Grantha' alphabet, and it is to be noticed that in the case of inscriptions on stone-tablets these characters are usually both of a better type and more carefully cut than in the case of copper-plate inscriptions; this alphabet is much the same as that met with in Sanskrit MSS. in this part of the country.

No. I.

The inscription submitted herewith is from Plate No. 53 of Major Dixon's work. The original, in the Old Canarese language and in somewhat large and slanting Old Canarese characters, is on a stone tablet 4' 2" high by 2' 9½" broad at Balagāmve, — the Balligāve of the inscription, or Balligrāme (Major Dixon's No. 39), or Balipura (*ibid.*, No. 72), — in Maisūr, about twenty miles to the S.E. of Banavāsi.

The emblems at the top of the stone are:— In the centre, a seated figure of Jinēndra; on its right, a priest or worshipper, and above him the sun; and on its left, a cow and calf, above which the portion of the stone bearing a representation of the moon has been broken away.

The inscription records a grant made in the Śaka year 970 (A.D. 1048-9), being the Sarva-dhāri saṁvatsara, by a private person to a Jain temple, while the Great Chieftain Chāyundarāya was governing at his capital of Balligāve, as the subordinate of the Chālukya king Śōmēśvaradēva I, the district known as the Banavāsi Twelve-thousand.

Balligāve would appear to have been the chief town of the circle of villages known as the Jiddulige Seventy, which probably constituted a minor division of the Banavāsi Twelve-thousand. I have not succeeded in tracing Jiddulige on the map.

The two-fold invocation,—one Jain and one Vaishṇava,—at the beginning of the inscription, —and the statement at the end that the lord Nāgavarmā*, whoever he may be, built temples of Jina, Viṣṇu and Śiva, are worthy of note as indicating the religious toleration that existed at that time.

Chāyundarāya is one of the later Kādambas of Banavāsi; he is mentioned by Sir W. Elliot† as being in Śaka 969 the head of the family, but his exact place in the genealogy cannot yet be determined.

Transcription.‡

- | | |
|---|---------------|
| [1] ಶ್ರೀಮತ್ಪರಮಗಂಭೀರಸಾಧ್ವಜಾಪೋಷಣಾಭೃತಂ | [1] |
| [2] ಜೀಯಾಶ್ರೈ(ಶ್ರೈ)ಕೋಕ್ಯವಾಪಸ್ಯ | ಕಾನನಂ ಜಿನಾಸನಂ |
| [3] ಸ್ವಸ್ತಿ ಸಮಸ್ತಭುವನಾತ್ರಯ ಶ್ರೀಪೃಥ್ವೀಪಲ್ಲಭ ಮಹಾರಾಜಾರಾಜ ಪರಮೀ- | |
| [4] ಪುರ ಪರಮಭಟ್ಟಾಕರಂ ಸಹ್ಯಾತ್ರಯಕುಳಕಿಕರಂ ಜಾಲಾಪ್ಯಾಭರಣಂ ಶ್ರೀಮ- | |
| [5] ಶ್ರೈ(ಶ್ರೈ)ಕೋಕ್ಯಮಲ್ಲಿಕೇವರ ವಿಜಯರಾಜ್ಯಂ ಪ್ರವರ್ತಿಸಿ ತತ್ಪಾದಪಲ್ಲವೋಪಕೋಭಿತೋತ್ತಮಾಂ- | |
| [6] ಸಂ ಸ್ವಸ್ತಿ ಸಮಧಿಕತಮಂಪಮಹಾಪದ್ವಿ ಮಹಾಮಣ್ಯ ಕೀರ್ತನಂ ಖನವಾಸೀಪ- | |
| [7] ರವಕೀರ್ತನಂ ಮಹಾಶಕ್ತೀಶ್ವರ ಪರಪ್ರಸಾದಂ ಕ್ಯಾಗವಿನೋದಂ ಲಯದಾಪಾಪ್ಯಾಸನ- | |
| [8] ದಾಯಕಾರ್ಯಂ ಗಣ್ಯರ ಗಣ್ಯಂ ಗಣ್ಯಭೀನು(ರು)ಣ್ಯಂ ಮೂಜರಾಯಾಸ್ಥಾನಂ ಕಲಿಬಿರುದಮಣ್ಯ- | |
| [9] ಲಕವ್ಯ ದ್ವಭಕಕರಂ ಕಲಿಕಳ ಮೊಗದಕಯಿರುದಾದಿತ್ಯಂ ಪ್ರತ್ಯಕ್ಷವಿಕ್ರಮಾದಿತ್ಯಂ ಜ- | |
| [10] ಸದೇಶವಾನಿ ನಾಮಾದಿಸಮಸ್ತಪ್ರಕಸ್ತಿಸಹಿತಂ ಶ್ರೀಮತ್ಪದಾಮಣ್ಯ ಕೀರ್ತನಂ ಚಾ[ವ]- | |
| [11] ಣ್ಯ ರಾಯರಸರ ಖನವಾಸೀಪದ್ವಿ ಸೀರಮನಾಳುತ್ತಮಿರಲಿ ರಾಜವಾನಿ ಬಳ್ಳಗಾವೆಮ | |

* The name of Nāgavarmā appears twice in Sir W. Elliot's genealogy of the Kādambas of Banavāsi anterior to Śaka 955.

† Whose reading of his name is Chāyundarāya. The second letter of the name has been effaced in the present inscription; I have supplied it as 'va' and not 'na,' because 'Chāyunda' is undoubtedly the reading in some inscriptions relating to the Sinda family which I shall shortly publish in the *Journ. B. Br. R. As. Soc.*, and it is further borne out by the abbreviated form 'Chayuda' which also occurs.

‡ Letters supplied, when effaced or illegible in the original, from conjecture or from other sources, are given in square brackets,—[]; and corrections, emendations, and doubtful points, in ordinary brackets,—(); a note of interrogation before a letter in ordinary brackets denotes a doubtful alternative reading, and a note of interrogation after such a letter denotes a doubt as to the propriety of a correction or emendation. My standards of orthography are, for Sanskrit words Prof. Monier Williams' *Sanskrit-English Dictionary*, and for Canarese words the Rev. D. Sanderson's enlarged edition of the Rev. W. Keble's *Dictionary*.

- [12] [ನೆ]ಲವೀಡಿನೊಳ್ ಕಕವರ್ಷ ೧೩೦ನೆಯ ಸರ್ವವಾರಸಂಪತ್ಸರದ ಜ್ಯೇಷ್ಠ ಶುದ್ಧ ಕ್ರಮೋ-
 [13] [ದ]ಶಿ ಅದಿತ್ಯವಾರದನ್ನು ಜಜೂಹುಕಿಶೋರನಾಥನಮ್ಮನಿತ್ತು ಬಳಗಾಲಗ-
 [14] ಣದ ಮೀದನನ್ನಿಭಟ್ಟಾರಕರ ಕಿಷ್ಕರವು ಕೇಶವನನ್ನಿ ಅದ್ವೈತವಾಸಿ ಭಳಾರರ
 [15] ಬಸದಿಗೆ ಪೂಜಾನಿಮಿತ್ತದಿಂದ ಪಾರಾಧರ್ವಕಂ ಜೆನ್ನುಳಗೆ ೩೦೦೦ ಬಳಯ ರಾಜಿ-
 [16] ಪಾನಿ ಬಳ್ಳಗಾವೆಯ ಪುಲ್ಲೆಯಬಯಲೊಳ್ ಭೇರುಣ್ಣಗಲೊಳ್ ಕೊಟ್ಟ ಗದ್ದೆ
 [17] ಮತ್ತರಯ್ಯ ಅದಲು ಸೀಮಿ ಬನಗ ಕೂಣಗುನದ್ದರ ಸೀಮಿಯ ಪಳಂ ಮೂವ
 [18] ಪಾನಹೇಗಟ್ಟು ತೆಂಕ ಅದ್ವೈತವಾಸಿಗಟ್ಟು ಪನುವ ನಟ್ಟ ಕಟ್ಟು ೩ ಛಮ್ಪಿಣ್ಣಾಣ ಪೊ-
 [19] ಯ್ಯನಕ್ಕೋನ ತ್ಯಾಗೇನ ಚ ಮಹೀತಲೇ ಗಣಭೇರುಣ್ಣಸಾವ್ವರೋ ನ ಭೂ[ಕೇ]ರ
 [20] ನ ಭವಿದ್ಯತಿ ೩ ಸಾಮಾನ್ಯೋ ಯ ಭರ್ಮಗೇತುರ್ವ್ಯಪಿಷಾಣಂ ಕಾಳೇ ಕಾಳೇ ಪಾ[ನೀ]-
 [21] ಯೋ ಭವದ್ವಿಃ ಸರ್ವಾಪೇಜಾನ್ ಭಾವಿಃ ಪಾರ್ಥವೀನ್ದ್ರಾನ್ ಭೂಯೋ ಭೂಯೋ ಯಾಜತಿಃ
 [22] ರಾಮಚಂದ್ರಃ ೩ ಬಹುಭಾರ್ವಕಸುಧಾ ಭುಕ್ತಾ ರಾಜಭಃ ಸಗಮಿಭಃ ಯಸ್ಯ ಯಸ್ಯ
 [23] ಯದಾ ಭೂಮಿಃ ತಸ್ಯ ತಸ್ಯ ತದಾ ಭೂಮಿಃ ೩ ಸ್ವಂ ದಾತುಂ ಸುಮಹತ್ಸಕ್ಯಂ ದುಃ-
 [24] ಬಮನ್ಯಸ್ಯ ಪಾಳನಂ ದಾನಂ ವಾ ಪಾಳನಂ ವೇಶಿ ದಾನಾಚ್ಛ್ರೀಯೋ ಸುಪಾಳನಮ ೩
 [25] ಸ್ವದತ್ತಾಂ ಪರದತ್ತಾಂ ವಾ ಯೋ ಹರೇಶಿ ವಸುನ್ಧರಾಂ ದ್ವಪ್ಪೀವರ್ವರ್ಷಸಪ-
 [26] ಸ್ರಾಣಿ ವಿಶ್ವಾಯಾಂ ಜಾಯತೇ ಕೃಮಿಃ ೩ ಒನವಾನಿವೇಸದೇಶಗಣಾ ಯ-
 [27] ನನಿಕಯಂ ವಿಶ್ವನಿಕಯವಿಾಶ್ವರನಿಕಯಂ ಮುನಿಗಣನಿಕೇ(೪)ಯ-
 [28] ಮಿವಂ ರಾಮನ ಚೇಗದಿಂ ನಾಗವರ್ಮವಿಧು ಮಾಡಿಸಿದಂ ೩

Translation.

May the scripture of the lord of the three worlds,—the scripture of Jina, which has for its efficacious characteristic the pleasing and most profound science of the assertion of possibilities*,—be victorious! Victorious is the boar-like form of Vishṇu† which became manifest, troubling the ocean and having the earth resting upon the tip of its uplifted right tusk!

Hail! While the victorious reign of the prosperous Trailōkyamalladēva,‡—the asylum of the universe, the favourite of the world, the supreme king of great kings, the supreme lord, the most venerable, the glory of the family of Satyākṣraya§, the ornament of the Chālukyas,—was continuing, he, whose head was

adorned (when he bowed himself in the act of performing obeisance) with the fresh blossoms that were his feet (as if with a garland), was:—

Hail!—the fortunate Mahāmāṇḍalēśvara king Chāvuṇḍarāya, who was possessed of all the glory of the names commencing with “The Great Chieftain || who has attained the five *Mahāśabdas**; the excellent lord of the city of Banavāsīpura; he who has acquired the choicest favour of the goddess Mahālakshmi; he who delights in liberality; he who is the preceptor of those that betake themselves to him †(?); he who is courageous, even when he has no one to assist him; he who is the bravest of brave men; he who is a very Gaṇḍabhērurūḍa‡; he who has three royal halls of audience§ (?);

* ‘*Syāddēdāḥ*, assertor of possibilities, is a name applied to the Jains; see H. H. Wilson, *Essays on the Religion of the Hindus*, vol. I. p. 316.

† The allusion is to the incarnation of Vishṇu as a boar to rescue the earth, which had been carried into the depths of the ocean by the demon Hiranyāksha.

‡ The Chālukya king Sōmēśvaradēva I.—Saka 962? to 991?—Sir W. Elliot.

§ ‘*Satyākṣraya*’, he in whom truth is inherent, was the name acquired by the Chālukya king Pulikēṣi I. or Pulikēṣi I. and the Chālukya family is hence called the ‘*Satyākṣ-rayakula*.’

|| ‘*Mahāmāṇḍalēśvara*,’—lit., lord of a large province.

* Probably five such titles as *Mahārāja*, *Mahāman-ḍalēśvara*, &c. Conf. *Ind. Ant.* vol. I. p. 81, note.

† ‘*Āyodāchārya*’, in the sense in which I have taken it, ‘*āyod*’, i.e. ‘*āyat*’, must be the present participle of the Sanskrit root ‘*ā*’, go, with the prefix ‘*ā*’, but I doubt whether the present participle in ‘*at*’ can be used in such a compound. If the analysis is ‘*āyodāchārya*’, ‘*āyodā*’ is the Canarese genitive of ‘*āya*’, income, revenue, profit, an established or customary fee; but in this case no suitable meaning seems to be deducible.

‡ A fabulous bird with two heads which preys on the flesh of elephants.

§ ‘*Māyurāyodāśana*.’

he who is a very Śaṅkara towards the bulls which are the brave chieftains decorated with badges of honour; he who is the best of heroes who wear badges of honour on their faces and hands; he who is a very Vikramāditya; he who is the elephant* of Jagadēkamalla."

While he was governing the Banavāsi Twelve-thousand,—on Sunday, the thirteenth lunar day of the bright fortnight of the month Jyēṣṭha of the Sarvadhāri *saṁvatsara* which was the year of the Śaka 970, at the capital of Baḷligāve, Kōśavanandi,—who fasted for eight days at a time, and who was the disciple of Mēshanandibhaṭṭāraka of the sect of the Balagāragaya which belonged to the god Jajābūti-Śrī-Sāntinātha†, being actuated by veneration, gave to the Basadi‡ of the Bhaḷār, with oblations of water, five *matṭara*§ of rice-land by the (measure of the) staff called Bhēruṇḍagale|| in the rice-land called Pulleya-baya¶ of the capital of Baḷligāve which is near to* the Jiddalige Seventy. The boundaries of it are:—To the north the rivulet of the lands of the village of Tāṇagundūr; to the east a large and flat detached rock; to the south the enclosure

called Aṣṭōpavāsigaṭṭa†; and to the west a stone set upright in the ground.

There has not been and there never shall be on the earth any one equal to the Gaṇḍabhēruṇḍa in respect of religion and courage and truthfulness and liberality.

"This general bridge of piety of kings should ever be preserved by you;"—thus does Rāmachandra make his earnest request to all future princes. The earth has been enjoyed by many kings, commencing with Sagara; he, who for the time being possesses it, enjoys the benefit of it. To give in one's own person is a very easy matter, but the preservation of (the religious grant of) another is troublesome; if one would discriminate between granting and preserving, verily preserving is better than granting. He who confiscates land that has been given, whether by himself or by another, is born for sixty thousand years as a worm in ordure.

At the desire of the king, the lord Nāgavarma caused to be built a temple of Jina, a temple of Viṣṇu, a temple of Śīvara, and a temple of the saints, in the country of Banavāse.

CORRESPONDENCE AND MISCELLANEA.

The Editor of the Indian Antiquary.

SIR,—In your last number (for May) the Rev. R. Collins has printed some desultory remarks—"Manichæans on the Malabar Coast"—in which he disputes certain positions advanced by me in a monograph on the Pahlavi inscriptions of South India. In the course of his remarks Mr. Collins revives some notions respecting the so-called Syrians of Malabar which I had imagined to be obsolete in consequence of it being well ascertained that, besides being incredible in themselves, these theories entirely want evidence to support them.

* Conf. 'Sēnmasiṅga,' the *lion of Sēna*, and 'Boppa-māsiṅga,' the *lion of Boppa*, which are titles of the Rājā chieftains Kārtavīrya II. and Lakṣmīdēva II. respectively; see line 6-7 of No. IV. and line 63-4 of No. VII. of the Rājā inscriptions published by me in vol. X. No. xix. of the *Jour. Ro. Br. R. As. Soc.*

† The sixteenth of the Jain Tīrthaṅkaras.

‡ Basadi, a Jain temple; the word is a Tadbhava corruption of the Sanskrit 'vasati,' abode, dwelling, a Jain monastery; the modern form is 'Bastī.'

§ Matṭar,—an ancient land-measure the value of which is not now known.

|| 'Bhēruṇḍagale,' the staff ('gale') of the Bhēruṇḍa. Bhēruṇḍa is the same as 'Gaṇḍabhēruṇḍa.'

¶ 'Bayala,' 'bayila,' or 'baḷila,' is the first of the three kinds of rice-land in South Canara described by Dr. Buchanan in his *Journey through Maṣṣar, Canara, and Malabar*, and is defined as "that in the lower part of

I shall now show that Mr. Collins has not made the case any better than it was. He has not adduced new facts, and his argument is disfigured by several misunderstandings of the books he quotes.

The attribution of the origin of South Indian Christianity to the Apostle Thomas seems very attractive to those who hold certain theological opinions, but the real question is, On what evidence does it rest? Without real and sufficient evidence, so improbable a circumstance is to be at once rejected. Pious fictions have no value in historical research. Mr. Collins refers to Abdias

valleys which are watered by small streams, from whence canals are dug to convey the water to the fields which, by this irrigation, are able to give annually two crops;" see the *Madras Reprint* of 1870, vol. II. pp. 228 and 260. In modern Canarese 'baḷila' means also a plain, an open field, and the open country to the east is known as the Baḷila-sīma as distinguished from the Maḷaṇḍa- or Maḷaṇḍa-dēśa or Maḷaṇḍa, the hilly and wooded country lying along the Western Ghāts.

* A comparison of passages in Sanskrit with passages in Old Canarese inscriptions shows that the Canarese 'baḷila' as used here is of the same purport as the Sanskrit 'madhyanvartin'; but 'baḷila' means near to, in the vicinity of, and I am doubtful whether it can be satisfactorily connected with 'ala,' inner, internal, or its derivatives. See note 37 to the translation of No. VII. of the Rājā inscriptions referred to above.

† 'Aṣṭōpavāsigaṭṭa,'—the enclosure ('kaṭṭa') of him who fasted for eight days at a time.

and Pantænus. Thanks to Dr. Wright, we now possess the Acts of Judas Thomas in an old Syriac text which cannot be very far from the original form of the myth. Dr. Wright (vol. i. p. xiv.) attributes this text to some time not later than the 4th century, and Dr. Haug connects the original text of this palpably Gnostic book with Bardesanes, who lived about the end of the second century. But this historically worthless composition (for it was written more than a hundred years after the events it relates), and which is the production of some ignorant and credulous man, even if it could be received as evidence, would only connect St. Thomas with the extreme north-west of India. Prof. Whitney and Dr. Haug,* with many others, look upon the pretended apostolic labours of St. Thomas† in India or China as a pious fiction, and, as there is no better evidence than what I have mentioned above, it is impossible to do otherwise than assent to the conclusion at which they have arrived. Nobody nowadays believes in the visit of Brutus to Britain, yet it rests on as good evidence as the mission of St. Thomas to South India, or even to India at all. Mr. Collins also refers to the story of Pantænus in support of his "strong impression" that St. Thomas was "the apostle both of Edessa and Malabar." He says: "Pantænus speaks in the second century of a gospel of St. Matthew being in India, and of the visit of an apostle." It would be difficult to misrepresent more completely the story of Pantænus, which we know only by the late hearsay recorded by Eusebius and St. Jerome, and not directly. Both expressly give the story as hearsay: "It is said" that Pantænus reached India, and found there a Gospel of St. Matthew (written in Hebrew characters) with some people "to whom the apostle Bartholemew had preached." Mr. Collins makes out that we have the words of Pantænus, and that "an apostle" (the italics are his own!) had preached in India,—thus leaving the reader to infer that it might have been St. Thomas, as no particular person is mentioned. The story is late hearsay, and therefore valueless for proof. But even if this could be got over, it says nothing about St. Thomas, and, as I have already mentioned (in my paper), India was in the early centuries A. D. the name of nearly the whole East, including China, and thus the mention of India proves nothing. Probably Southern Arabia was intended.‡ It is not till after several centuries more had passed that we again come to legends which connect St. Thomas with South India, and it is obviously useless to refer to these. Mr. Collins

mentions Syriac documents; it is to be regretted that he did not quote them with precision, and say by whom they were written and whence they come. When he does so it will be time enough to consider their value.

As I have said, Mr. Collins has a strong impression that St. Thomas was the apostle both of Edessa and Malabar. He grounds this, apparently, on a notion that the "Pahlavi language, according to Max Müller, originated in an Aramean dialect of Assyria." I was much astonished at this, for I felt sure that that illustrious philologist could not have said anything of the kind. What he does say (*Science of Language*, 1st Series, 5th ed. p. 235) is as follows:—"We trace the subsequent history of the Persian language from Zend to the inscriptions of the Achaemenian dynasty; from thence to what is called *Pehlvi* or *Hasbarish* (better *Hazresh*), the language of the Sassanian dynasty (226-651) . . . this is considerably mixed with Semitic elements, probably imported from Syria." I might refer to the researches of Dr. Haug and others, and the views of the Parsi scholars, headed by their very learned Dastur Peshutun Behramji Sanjana, as regards the nature of this Semitic element (which was written but not spoken), but Prof. Max Müller's actual words show how utterly wrong Mr. Collins is. Even if he were right, what he assumes (as above) would not support his "strong impression."

From whatever point of view the question be considered, the result is the same,—there is no evidence at all that St. Thomas ever preached in India proper, and the story has every mark of being a vague fiction originally, but afterwards made more precise and retailed by interested parties.

This being the case, the only safe conclusion is that asserted,—that the earliest Christian mission to India was probably Gnostic or Manichean. Leaving aside the first, I will only again point out that the account of Al Nadīm is an historical document based on original sources. Perhaps I carried too far my doubts about Manes having preached in India; the word for 'preach' is ambiguous, but I see Spiegel (*Eran. Alterthumsk.* II. p. 204) accepts his journey there as a fact. At all events, Manes was a most zealous missionary, and certainly sent disciples to India. As to the meaning of India, there can be no doubt in this case. The Arabs used it in a perfectly defined sense. Thus the Manichean mission to India in the 3rd century A.D. is the only historical fact that we know of in relation to

* In his review of my monograph (as originally printed) in the *Augsburg Gazette*.

† Whitney, *Oriental and Linguistic Studies*, vol. II.

‡ As the author of *Supernatural Religion* (4th edition), vol. I. p. 471, understands it. Where I am I can refer but to few books, so I take his extracts from Eusebius and St. Jerome.

Christian missions in India before we got as low as the sixth century.

Mr. Collins points out that Manichæan was a term of abuse among the early Christians. This is a fact;* but Abu Saïd was a Muhammadan, not a Christian, and if he had wished to abuse the Christians he would have called them all (orthodox and unorthodox) simply *Kofers*. The Arabs of the 9th and 10th centuries were, however, possessed of too much culture and too little bigotry to interest themselves in the perpetual and trumped-up squabbles of the so-called Eastern Churches. They had a distinct name for the Manichæans—*Manāni*.

Mr. Collins also urges a new derivation of *Manigrāmam*, viz. from *Māpava* or *Māpi*. Either word might be used in the sense he assigns, but what reason has he for supposing that it was so used in the 8th century? The derivation is in itself not probable. It is evident from the so-called Syrian grant that *Manigrāmam* was not a Brāhmap village, and of conversions there is nowhere the least mention. Whatever the *Manigrāmam* were, Mr. Whitehouse's account (as quoted) gives little reason to suppose that they were orthodox Christians. Mr. Collins also urges that *Māpikarāchaka* (in the Sanskrit form of his name) was not a Manichæan; I cannot imagine how anyone could ever have supposed that he was. This eminent Tamil reformer is known historically; one temple, at least, founded by him exists still in the Tanjore province, and several of his works (on Śaiva doctrine) are popular even now. He deserves better than to be called a "*Tamil sorcerer*," whatever that may mean.

Mr. Collins appropriates Dr. Haug's very important explanation of the inscriptions as Nestorian. This fact of their origin, taken together with the use of Pahlavi, seems to me to explain the whole matter. These inscriptions certainly are of about the year 890 A.D., and at that time the Nestorian missionaries were very active: the cross and inscriptions of Si-ngan-fu (in China) was erected by some in 781 A.D. But at that time Pahlavi was nearly extinct in Persia. Why then should Nestorian missionaries use a difficult language foreign to themselves and hardly used at all, except that it was the language of the people to whom they preached in South India? The inscription at Si-ngan-fu is in Syriac and Chinese.† The ambiguous Persian names of the witnesses of the so-called Syrian grant of about 825 A.D. preclude the supposition of Syrian or of orthodox Christians. Again, why should Nestorian missionaries have used the formula we find in these inscriptions if the people to whom they preached

held Trinitarian doctrines at all? The most probable conclusion is that the Nestorians came to Malabar as missionaries to unorthodox Persian settlers.

For these reasons I still hold to the conclusions at which I originally arrived; they appear to me to be the only reasonable and probable conclusions, except new facts be discovered which may put the whole matter in a new light. The history of the Travancore Christians affords an ample field for research to many living in Travancore who have both opportunity and leisure for the work. Since the last fifty years there have been endless tracts and books written on the subject; I have read most, but failed to find any new facts in them, or evidence of original research. Had a real investigation ever been made, it would not have been left to me to bring to light these inscriptions. I can only hope that this subject will be better treated in future, but I cannot myself assist,—I have other work to do.

A. BURNELL, Ph. D.

Coondor (Neilgherry Hills), 18th May 1875.

MUSALMÁN PRAYERS.

The Rev. T. P. Hughes tells us that prayer (Arabic *Sala*, Persian and Hindustāni *Namāz* Pushtu *Namāz*) is the second of the five foundations of Islām. He translates the words *Sala* and *Namāz* by the English word *prayer*, although this "second foundation" of the religion of Muhammad is something quite distinct from that prayer which the Christian poet so well describes as the "soul's sincere desire, uttered or unexpressed." It would be more correct to speak of the Muhammadan *Namāz* as a service, 'prayer' being more correctly rendered by the Arabic *du'a*. In Islām prayer is reduced to a mechanical act as distinct from a mental act, and in judging of the spiritual character of Islāmism we must take into careful consideration the precise character of that devotional service which every Muslim is required to render to God at least five times a day, and which undoubtedly exercises so great an influence upon the character of the followers of Muhammad. It is absolutely necessary that the service should be performed in Arabic; that the clothes and body of the worshipper should be clean, and that the praying-place should be free from all impurity. It may be said either privately, or in a company, or in a mosque—although services said in a mosque are more meritorious than those said elsewhere. In addition to the daily prayers, the following are special services for special occasions: *Salāt-i-*

* It is well known, and does not rest on Elliot's *Hors Apocryptics*, a book devoid of scientific value.

† See Col. Yule's *Marco Polo*, 2nd ed. vol. II. pp. 21 ff.

Juma'—"The Friday Prayer." It consists of two 'rikats' after the daily meridian prayer. *Salât-i-Musafir*—"Prayer for a traveller." Two rikats instead of the usual number at the meridian, afternoon, and night prayers. *Salât-i-Khauf*—"The prayers of fear." Said in time of war. They are two rikats recited first by one regiment or company, and then by the other. *Salât-i-Tardwiâ*—Twenty rikats recited every evening during the Ramazân, immediately after the fifth daily prayer. *Salât-i-Istikâra*—"Prayers for success or guidance." The person who is about to undertake any special business performs two rikat prayers and then goes to sleep. During his slumbers he may expect to have "*ilham*" (lit. inspiration) as to the undertaking for which he seeks guidance! The *Azan* is the summons to prayer proclaimed by the *Muezzin* (or crier), in small mosques from the door or side, but in large mosques it ought to be given from the minaret. The following is a translation:—"God is great! God is great! God is great! I bear witness that there is no God but God!" (repeated twice). "I bear witness that Muhammad is the Apostle of God!" (repeated twice). "Come to prayers! Come to prayers! Come to salvation! Come to salvation! God is great! there is no other God but God!" In the early morning the following sentence is added:—"Prayers are better than sleep." The *Wâhâbi Azan* is just half the length of that commonly used. The sentences generally said four times they say only twice, and those repeated twice they recite only once. The summons to prayer was at first the simple cry "Come to prayer." In this, as in most of his ritual, Muhammad has not much claim to originality, for Bingham tells us that a similar custom existed at Jerusalem (see *Antiquities*, vol. II. p. 489)—"In the monastery of virgins which Paula, the famous Roman lady, set up and governed at Jerusalem, the signal was given by one going about and singing *halleluja*," for that was their call to church, as St. Jerome informs us.

NEED OR PURPOSE.

From the Meenavi of Jellâl-al-dyn Râmi.

Translated by E. Rehatsek, M.C.E.

گر نبودي حاجت عالم زمين
تا فريدي پيچ رب العالمين
وين زمين مضطرب محتاج کوه
گر نبودي نافردي پر شکوه
ور نبودي حاجت افلاک هم
وقت کردون تا وريدي از عدم

آفتاب و ماه و اين استارگان
جز بجايت كي پديد آمد ميان
پس كند بهاتها حاجت بود
قدر حاجت مرد را ايك بود
پس بيفزا حاجت اي محتاج زود
تا بچوشد از گرم درياي جود
اين كدايان بر ره دهر مبتلا
حاجت خود مينمايد خلق را
كوري و تنكي و بيماري و درد
تا از اين حاجت بچيد رحم مرد
بيچ كويد نان ديدد اي مردمان
كه مرا مالست و انبار است و خوان
چشم نهداده است حق در كورموش
زانكه بي چشمش چریدن هست چوش
ميتواند زبست بي چشم و بصر
فارغ است از چشم اندر خاك نر
جز بدزدي او برون نايذ زخاك
تا كند خالق از ان دزدبش پاك
بعد از ان پر يابد و مرفي شود
چون ملايك جانب كردون روه
هر زمان در كلشي شكر خدا
او برآرد همچو بلبل صد نوا
كا برهاندوه مرا از وصف زشت
اي كنده دوزخي چون بهشت
در يكي پي نهي تو روشني
استخواني را دهني سمع اي فني
چه تعلق آن معاني را بچشم
چه تعلق فهم اشيارا باسم
لفظ چون و كراست و معني طاير است
جسم جويي و روح آب ساير است
در رواني روي آب جوي فكر
نيست بي خاشاك خوب و زشت ذكر

او روانست و تو کوی واقف است
 او دوانست و تو کوی عاکف است
 گو بودی سیر آب از جابجا
 چیست بروی نو بنو خاشاکها
 هست اینجا شاک صورتهای فکر
 نو بنو در میرسد اشکال بکر
 روی آب جوی فکر اندر روش
 نیست بی خاشاک محبوب و وحش
 قشرها بروی این آب روان
 از نثار باغ غیبی شد دوان
 قشرها را مغز اندر باغ جو
 زانکه آب از باغ می آید بجو
 گر نه بینی رفتن آب حیات
 بکر اندر جوی این سیر نبات

Had need not been for worlds, for earth,
 Nothing the Lord of worlds would have produced.
 This earth chaotic stood in need of hills;
 Had this not been, He had not raised majestic
 ones.

Had there no need been of the spheres also,
 Seven whirling ones from nought he had not made.
 The sun, the moon, and all these stars
 Could not shine forth if not for need.
 Thus need the cause of all existences became.
 The power also of man in need consists,
 Then, needy man, be quick, proclaim your need,
 That bounty's ocean may with mercy boil!
 All mendicants distressed in the world
 Their needs to all men do proclaim—
 Their blindness, poverty, disease, and pain—
 Mankind's pity with their needs to move.
 No one will say:—"Give bread to me, O men!
 Property and barns and stores I do possess."
 God has withheld eyesight from moles
 Because no eyes they need for their support;
 They live and move deprived of vision,
 At ease, though blind, in soil all moist;
 By stealth alone they leave their domicile
 Until their Maker frees them from that stealth,
 With wings endows them,* makes them birds
 Winging to heaven their angel-flights,
 Alway to dwell in the rose-grove of thanks to
 God,

* These lines do not allude, as might be supposed,
 to any metamorphosis which moles are supposed to

Like philomels to sing a hundred melodies:—
 "O saviour from all wickedness,
 Transforming hell to paradise,
 A greasy ball with light thou hast endowed
 And bones with hearing; O most bountiful!"
 Does intuition with the human frame unite?
 How do all things with names combine?
 Words are but nests, the meanings are the birds.
 Body the bed through which the spirit-river flows.
 The surface of this mental watercourse
 Is not without its chaff of good and bad repute:
 It flows, but you would say it stagnates;
 It moves but you would say it stays;
 From place to place were there no motion
 Whence these renewed supplies of floating chaff?
 That chaff is but an image of the mind,
 Assuming every moment a new shape;
 Like chaff its likes and dialikes floats away;
 The husks upon the surface of this watercourse
 Come from transmundane garden's fruits,—
 The kernels of those husks in yonder garden seek.
 The water from that garden to the river flows;
 If you your life's departure cannot see,
 Behold in the waters this floating of the plants.

LUST OF DOMINION.

Translated from the Meenavi of Jellāl-aldīn Rūmī.

By E. Behateek, M.C.E.

ابتدای کبر و کین شہوت است
 راسخی شہوت از عادت است
 چون ز عادت گشت محکم خوی بد
 خشم آید بر کسی گت واگشد
 چونکه تو گلخوار گشتی هر که او
 وا گشد از کل ترا باشد عدو
 بت پرستان چونکه خوبا بت کنند
 مانعان راه بت را دشمن اند
 چونکه کرد ابلیس خوبا سروری
 دید آدم را بتکشیر از خری
 کر به از من سروری دیگر بود
 تا که او مسجود چون من کس شود
 سروری زہراست جز آنروح را
 گو بود تریاق لانی ز ابتدا

undergo in nature, but embody * flight of poetical
 fancy.—E. R.

کوه اگر پر مار شد باکی مدار
 که بود اندر درون تریاق زار
 سروری چون شد دعاغت را ندیم
 بر که بشکست شود ختم قدیم
 چون خلاف خوی تو گوید کسی
 کینها خیزد ترا با او بسی
 کو مرا از خوی من بر میکند
 خویش را بر من چو سرور میکند
 چون نباشد خوی بد سرکش در او
 کی فروزد از خلاف آتش در او
 چون نباشد خوی بد محکم شده
 کی فروزد از خلاف آتشکده
 با مخالف او مدارا می کند
 در دل او خویش را جا میکند
 زانکه خوی بد نکشت استوار
 مور شهوت شد زعادت به چو مار
 مار شهوت را بکش در ابتدا
 ورنه اینک کشت مارن از دها
 لیک هر کس مور بیند مار خویش
 تو ز صاحب دل کن استفسار خویش

All pride and pain with lust begins,
 But habit will establish lust.
 When custom has your humours fixed
 Him you hate who draweth you away;
 If you an earth-eater have become,
 Who pulls your earth away your foe will be;
 When idol worshippers to statues get at-
 tached
 Him they hate who idols doth forbid.
 When Eblis wished a prince to be,
 Adam he feigned to despise:
 "Was this a better prince than me,
 Worshipped to be by one like me?"*
 Dominion poison is; except to Him
 Who cures all evils from the first;
 Fear not a mountain full of snakes,
 The antidote it certainly contains.
 Give way to pride's dominion,
 Who breaks it will your hatred earn;
 No matter who would thwart your wish,
 He will encounter darts of wrath.
 Who means to weed my humours out
 Usurps dominion over me.
 Had he no evil pride in him,
 Could fire of strife inflame his mind?
 Had evil nature not got root,
 How could the flame of opposition blaze?
 Does he his foe conciliate?
 Will he enshrine him in his heart
 Because his evil humour has no root?
 The ant of lust, habit a serpent made;
 O kill the snake of lust at first,
 Or else a dragon will your snake become;
 But all mistake their snakes for ants!
 Do you from sages take advice.

BOOK NOTICES.

A COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR OF THE MODERN 'ĀRYAN LANGUAGES OF INDIA; to wit, Hindi, Panjābī, Sindhi, Gujarāṭī, Marāṭhī, Oriyā, and Bāṅgālī. By John Beames, Bengal Civil Service. Vol. I. On Sounds. (London: Trübner and Co. 1872).

Mr. Beames apologizes for the "many imperfections" of which he is aware as marking his work, and sorrowfully speaks of the exceedingly little leisure which a Bengal Civilian can command from his official duties. We fear the little is becoming less; and we gratefully accept the work before us as a proof of what indomitable perseverance can accomplish under difficulties.

The sight of Dr. Caldwell's *Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian Languages* led Mr. Beames in 1865 to resolve to provide, if possible, a similar comparison of the Āryan dialects of India. He is

well acquainted with Panjābī, Hindī, Bāṅgālī, and Oriyā; and he has collected much information regarding Marāṭhī, Gujarāṭī, and Sindhi. His books of reference, however, in the "remote wilderness" of Balasore have been, he says, sadly few.

The present volume contains only the Phonetics of the Āryan group. Two more volumes will be required in order to complete the work.

Mr. Beames has an Introduction extending to 121 pages. It is not very well arranged, and it abounds in repetitions; but it is animated, and even sprightly. *Idemem dicere verum quid vetat?* Mr. Beames is fond of a joke, and dexterously provides one now and then for his flagging readers.

The task which Mr. Beames has set himself is by no means an easy one. The ancient languages

The translator does not take it on himself to correct the metre, when it happens to be faulty.

* *Qurān*, II. 82: "And when we said unto the angels, Worship Adam; they worshipped, save Eblis, who refused and was puffed up with pride."

of India—the Prākṛits, as well as Sanskrit—are all synthetical. The modern Āryan tongues are all analytical. We have not sufficient materials to show how the modern were developed out of the ancient forms. Whether you trace the ancient tongues down, or the modern ones up, you are equally unable to discover a continuous stream of language. Sanskrit, of course, became fixed at an early period; yet if the Buddhists and Jains had been faithful to their original idea of using a language “understood of the people,” the words of their books would have revealed the progress of the popular speech; but unhappily a Jaina work of the fifth or sixth century is written in the language of the first or second. Then if you proceed up the stream, you can go no higher, even in the case of Hindi, than the date of Chand Bardāi,—that is to say, the 12th or 13th century. But the language of Chand is in structure analytical.

We are thus compelled to have recourse to analogy in any attempt to explain how the ancient passed into the modern tongues. The Romance languages of Europe are related to Latin nearly as the Indian vernaculars are to Sanskrit. Mr. Beames states this correspondence very strongly;—he holds that, in the whole extent of linguistic science there exists no more remarkable similarity than between the development of Provençal, Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese out of Latin, and that of Hindi, Marāṭhī, Bangālī, Sindhī, and the rest out of Sanskrit. Most of the words occurring in the Romance languages are derivatives of “low Latin,” that is, of the vulgar, as distinguished from literary and refined speech; for example *equus*, a horse, has no descendant of the same signification—*cheval*, *cavallo*, *caballo* being all derived from the peasants’ term *caballus*. It is reasonable to believe that the same thing occurred in India. The words of “lower caste” would be preserved in the vernaculars—words of which we may find no trace either in Sanskrit or Prākṛit writings. Still they may have been common in the mouths of the middle and lower classes even in early times, and thoroughly good Āryan terms. Before their Āryan parentage is denied we must search for them through all the existing families of Indo-Germanic speech. We must not rush to the inference that *deśajā* terms were borrowed from the aborigines.

So much for the constituent elements of the vernaculars. Now as to inflections. It has been usual to describe the breaking down of the inflectional system that ruled in Sanskrit as the effect of contact with the aboriginal races. Mr. Beames emphatically rejects this view. We need, he says, no aboriginal influence to explain a development

which is natural. The flower of synthetic grew into the fruit of analytic structure, both in Europe and in India. But there may have been an influence from without accelerating the changes. Certainly the presence of Teutonic and Celtic races, that could not or would not acquire the classical inflections, hastened the destruction of the ancient synthetic forms in Europe; and the presence of non-Āryans in India, entering more or less into connection with the Āryans, must have exerted an influence of the same kind, whatever its extent may have been. Mr. Beames fights against the *Dasyus* with all the vehemence of an old Ārya warrior, or of the mighty Indra himself. But his zeal carries him too far. For example, he complains that Dr. Caldwell “has gone quite wild” on the resemblance between the sign of the dative in Tāmīl (*ku*) to that in Hindi (*ko*); and he maintains there is not “the slightest reason” for tracing the latter to any but an Āryan source. Possibly not; but what is his argument? In old Hindi *ko* is *kaṁā*, which is the regular form of the Sanskrit *kām*, the accusative of words in *ka*. But is there no difficulty in seeing how the accusative form of the few words that end in *ka* can be transferred to all the words in the language? Dr. Caldwell may perhaps be wrong; but we cannot admit that Mr. Beames is right.

We have in this volume evidence of careful and truth-loving investigation of facts. At the same time Mr. Beames seldom comes across a striking fact without trying to account for it. We would not wish these guesses at truth had been left out, though we may sometimes think he guesses wrong. Thus, in speaking of the difference between the Marāṭhī of the Dakhan and that of the Konkan, we are informed correctly that the latter has more of a nasal sound and prefers *ṣ* to *s*, in many cases. In this it resembles Bangālī; and “in both cases, proximity to the sea, and the low swampy nature of the country, may have had a tendency to debase and thicken the pronunciation.” It is an interesting inquiry; the effect of climate on pronunciation well deserves attention. But we are unable to accept the explanation offered. We do not think that the pronunciation in the Konkan is thickened or debased, as compared with that of the Dakhan. As for nasal sounds,—they abound in French and are rare in Italian; and we have been in the habit of ascribing their prevalence in the former to the Celtic, which was the old speech of Gaul. In so far as proximity to the sea has an influence, Italian ought to be more nasal than French. Then as to the *s* and *ṣ*. Take the famous instance of *Shibboleth* and *Sibboleth*; and the explanation fails. So does it, we apprehend, in many other

cases. In spite of proximity to the sea, the inhabitants of Britain say *mare*; while, in spite of distance from the sea, southern as well as northern Germany says *see*. Mr. Beames also mentions a tendency to use *क* for *न* as showing the same effect in the Konkani. Well, but all Mahārāṣṭra makes the infinitive end in *क*, while in Hindi it is *न*; and we cannot see how climate can account for the distinction. Besides, is not the cerebral *न* a stronger, manlier letter than the dental *न*? But now to have done with fault-finding—the only error we have detected in the Introduction is in the following passage. “In Marāṭhi the causal verb is formed by the insertion of the syllables *avi*, or *iva*, or *vari*, as *māneṣ*, “to kill” [this should have been written *māraṇeṣ*; it is a trisyllable]; *māraṇeṣ*, “to cause to kill;” *khāneṣ*, “to eat;” *khāvaṇeṣ*, “to cause to eat;” *soḍneṣ* [rightly, *soḍaṇeṣ*], “to loose;” *soḍaṇeṣ*, “to cause to loose.” So far Mr. Beames; but *soḍaṇeṣ* signifies “to cause to be loosed,” not “to cause to loose”; and *māraṇeṣ* signifies “to cause to be killed,” not “to cause to kill.” *Khāvaṇeṣ*, on the other hand, does signify “to cause to eat.” There are causals and causals; causals derived from verbs transitive, and causals derived from verbs intransitive; and the syntax becomes a chaos when this distinction is overlooked.

The following mode of grouping the languages will reveal at a glance the relative character of their constituent elements. Let the left side of the page denote the Arabic and Persian pole, and the right side the Sanskrit one; and the seven vernaculars will stand thus—

Panjābī	Gujarātī	Hindī	Marāṭhī	Baṅgālī
Sindhī				Oṛiyā

It will be seen that Hindī occupies the middle space. It draws freely from Arabic and Persian on the one hand, and from Sanskrit on the other; the influence of the Muhammadans balancing that of the Hindus, from their “greater intelligence,” as Mr. Beames expresses it, or, as we may add, from their greater energy and the influence of Muhammadan rulers. He ascribes the comparatively small number of Arabic and Persian words in Baṅgālī to the circumstance that there is “an immense majority” of Hindus in Bengal. The Muhammadans, however, constitute about a third of the population; and in Eastern Bengal, where they are most numerous, “Musalmān Baṅgālī” is a language not only spoken, but with a literature deserving of attention. The true explanation is that educated Baṅgālīs have been almost all Hindus, and they have been for the most part—especially of late—the most rigid of purists.

Each of the seven vernaculars, with the exception of Oṛiyā, possesses dialects. Hindī possesses

many. The languages, when they meet, seem to melt or pass imperceptibly into each other, without anything like that abrupt transition which you feel in Europe when you go, for example, from Germany into France, Italy, or Russia. The development of all the languages has been in one direction,—it differs only in degree. We can picture the time when the whole Āryan race spoke “what may fairly be called one language, though in many diverse forms.” Diversities have grown with time; yet the question naturally occurs whether, in days to come, the many tongues may not again become one. This, however, will not probably be by the dialects gradually assuming one type, but by the “survival of the fittest.” Hindī is more likely to extinguish others than itself to be extinguished. It will push out Panjābī and the multifarious dialects of Rājputānā, and be the ruling tongue from the Himālayas to the Vindhya, from the Indus to Rājmaḥāl. It will then be spoken by a hundred millions, and will press heavily on its neighbours. Gujarātī will be absorbed without difficulty. Sindhī and Baṅgālī will resist much longer, but will yield at last. Oṛiyā and Marāṭhī will hold out after their sisters have succumbed, but they too must perish. “Yes,” says Mr. Beames, “that clear, simple, graceful, flexible, and all-expressive Urdu speech seems undoubtedly destined at some future period to supplant most, if not all, of the provincial dialects, and give to all Āryan India one homogeneous cultivated form of speech—to be, in fact, the English of the Indian world.”

That is a bold speculation, truly; yet we are not prepared to deny the possibility of its fulfilment. We deem it very probable that Gujarātī will be absorbed: and a steady extension of Hindī through the Marāṭhā country, until it shall stand side by side with Marāṭhī, seems also likely. With Baṅgālī we think the fight will be harder. Educated Baṅgālīs, who are all proud of their language and think of annexing Assamese and even Oṛiyā to it, will fight to the death against the encroaching tongue. Let it be noted that the dialect which Mr. Beames so much admires is Hindī “in its Persianized form,” i.e.—Urdu, written, no doubt, in the Persian character. There is a fight in India, “never ending, still beginning,” as to the relative merits of the two forms of the language—the Hindī proper, as we shall take the liberty of calling it, and Persianized Hindī (Urdu). Mr. Beames clearly is a champion of the latter. Be it so; but does he not see how difficult it will be for the Hindus generally to adopt a foreign and difficult mode of writing, instead of their native, expressive, and easy Nāgarī? We must remind him of the story he appositely quotes from Bābū Rājendraśāstra Mitra. The family of a

Mathurā merchant was thrown into consternation by this announcement in a letter from his agent—*Bābā āj mar gayā, bārī bābā bhej dīyā*, *The master has died to-day; send the chief wife* (no doubt, to perform the obsequies); but after an immensity of wailing, it was discovered that the words more naturally (and truly) read thus, *Bābā Ajmer gayā, bārī bābā bhej dīyā*. *The master has gone to Ajmer; send the big ledger*. The inveterate omission of vowels in "Persianized Hindi," whether written or printed, seems to us a very serious impediment to its diffusion; and, apart from this, we are so far Āryan in our proclivities, that we had rather keep any Arab intruders from overrunning India.* The praises which Mr. Beames lavishes on Urdu belong equally to Hindi proper; and we think its gradual substitution for its comparatively unwieldy sisters would be a gain to India. But such things cannot be forced. The Marāṭhās will not relish the change; and the Bāṅgālīs probably still less. Each of these nations has will, and character, and a growing literature. The Bāṅgālīs, it is true, as Mr. Beames says, cannot distinguish between *v* and *b*; † but they can, and do, distinguish between what is indigenous and what is foreign.

These remarks have not taken us beyond the long and interesting Introduction, which counts for chap. I. The rest of the work contains 240 pages. Chap. II. discusses changes of vowels; chap. III. changes of single consonants; and chap. IV. changes of double consonants. Everywhere we find traces of careful inquiry, and occasionally striking generalizations. But our limits begin to press; we cannot venture to quote much, and are hardly disposed to criticize.

The vocalism of the Sanskrit is singularly pure, the trilogy of *a*, *i*, *u* prevailing; and of other vowel sounds only *e* (long), *o* (long), *ai*, *au*; which moreover, are restricted to derivatives and secondary forms. In the main the vernaculars follow this pure system. On the other hand, the non-Āryan languages both in Northern and Southern India abound in broken and impure vowels; and Mr. Beames is on the whole at last disposed to trace any deviation of the vernaculars from the Sanskrit pure vocalism to the influence of the non-Āryan tongues.

The vowel changes are less remarkable than the consonantal changes. At first sight the permutations here might well seem a complete chaos; and

several writers have spoken in strong terms of the "lawless license" of Indian etymology. Mr. Beames, however, does not believe in this asserted lawlessness; and he offers what he modestly calls "hints," as a contribution towards that full solution which may still be far off.

We may divide the changes undergone by consonants into two kinds—positional and organic. The positional are so called because their character is determined by the position the consonant holds in a word. In regard to such changes the seven vernaculars are on the whole uniform—the same modifications running through all.

Changes from one organ of speech to another which do not depend on position Mr. Beames calls organic. We would simply call them non-positional. In these the peculiarities of the various languages come into strong relief. Each language has a genius or temper of its own which determines the permutation.

In regard to positional changes, the Āryan languages fall under the wonderfully comprehensive rule stated by Grimm. *Anlaut hält die stufen jedes organes am reinsten und treuesten; Inlaut ist geneigt es zu erschächen; Auslaut zu erhärten*,—that is, initial letters retain most purely and truly the grade of each organ; letters in the middle incline to weaken it; final letters to harden it. (Grade means here the character of *tenuis* or *media*; thus, *k*, *p*, *t*, which are *tenuis*, would in the middle of words incline to become the *media* *g*, *b*, *d*.) The rule holds good, in the main, of our Indian tongues.

As to letters given in two forms, Mr. Beames holds that the cerebrals *ṭ* and *ṣ* are the "real representatives of the European *t* and *d*." They distinctly differ from our *t* and *d*, however. We cannot at this moment lay our hand on the place where the opinion is given, but we know that the lexicographer Molesworth—of whom Mr. Beames speaks with warm and just admiration—held that our English *t* and *d* would be better represented by the dentals *ṭ* and *ṣ* than the cerebrals *ṭ* and *ṣ*. Mr. Beames discards the theory that cerebrals were obtained from non-Āryan races, and labours, ingeniously at all events, to explain how they came into existence. None of the seven tongues is so fond of cerebrals as Sindhi; and next come Oriyā and Marāṭhī. Yet puzzles abound. For instance, Sindhi has no cerebral *l* (*ṛ*); Oriyā and Marāṭhī delight in it. They may have got it from non-Āryan races;

* In another part of his work we find Mr. Beames himself admitting "the imperfectness of the Arabic character as a vehicle for the expression of Āryan sounds."

† *Apr* *opos* of *v* and *b*, we must not forget one of Mr. Beames's best jokes. He holds that "Bengalis might come under the same head as those Neapolitans of whom it was said '*Felices quibus vivere est lobere*,' were it not that,

instead of the generous juice of the vine, the Bengali drinks muddy ditch-water in which his neighbours have been washing themselves, their clothes, and their cattle." The Bāṅgālīs are capital at quizzing; but we don't know that they can stand being quizzed. The scholarly and sarcastic Collector must take precautions against a mutiny at Balasore.

but whence did Panjābī and Gujarātī take it? The latter two have come little in contact with any but Āryan tongues.

But *claudite jam rivos pueri; sat prata biberunt.*

It would be ungracious to complain of defects in a work which has cost its author an immensity of toil, and contains such a mass of information; and we shall therefore merely express the hope that when a second edition appears, Mr. Beames will say something on the following points:—

1. The dialects of Hindī, particularly the Brāj Bhāṣā, which may be called a literary language;

2. The dialects of Rājputānā; of which he does not even give us the names;

3. The Musalmān Bhaṅgālī;

4. The Assamese;

5. The Kōṅkṇī. Mr. Beames speaks indeed of Kōṅkṇī, but he means only that form of Marāṭhī which is spoken below the Ghāṭs, and which differs in a very slight degree, and in its inflections not at all, from the language as spoken above the Ghāṭs. But there is another dialect of Marāṭhī which might almost be reckoned as an additional language, differing from Marāṭhī nearly as much as Gujarātī does; and this is known by the name of Kōṅkṇī. It extends from about Goa to Honavar. We commend it to Mr. Beames's attention.

6. The dialects spoken by women.—In the Prospectus of his *Hindustānī and English Dictionary* Dr. Fallon mentions that this portion of the language has been "strangely overlooked." He estimates its importance highly, though not, we think, too highly. But it is not only in Hindī and Hindustānī that the speech of women is deserving of study; it is equally so, we believe, in all the dialects. At all events, it is so in Marāṭhī and Bhaṅgālī. In both of these—particularly Bhaṅgālī—there has been an effort on the part of Paṇḍits and many others to drag back the existing forms of the language to their Sanskrit prototypes, which is no better than childish and vexatious pedantry. The true phonetic forms and idioms will often best be found in the speech of women of the upper and middle classes.

And now to conclude. We have nothing but admiration to express when we think of the vast labour which Mr. Beames has undergone in this important and difficult field of investigation. If the two remaining volumes shall be elaborated with the same loving care as the present, he will not perhaps have bestowed on the world a *women's-treatise* *cere perennis*, but he will have achieved all that can reasonably be expected of a pioneer, and will have set a high example, which, we trust succeeding scholars will earnestly seek to follow.

Edinburgh, 16th April 1875.

J. MURRAY MITCHELL.

STATISTICAL, DESCRIPTIVE, AND HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES OF INDIA. Edited, under orders of the Government of India, by EDWIN P. ATKINSON, B.A., Bengal Civil Service. Vol. I. Bundelkhand. Printed at the N. W. P. Govt. Press, Allahabad, 1874.

This is the first volume of the long-promised North-West Provinces Gazetteer; and as a compilation of official statistics it reflects much credit upon the industry of its editor, who has not only brought together a great mass of useful information, but has also shown considerable skill in its methodical arrangement. But as regards matters with which we are more specially concerned, viz. ethnical and linguistic scholarship, we can scarcely speak in such high terms; and without any wish to detract unjustly from the merits of a performance which has been commended in other quarters for its practical utility, we will proceed to point out a few defects which it would be desirable to amend in a re-issue. They are almost all of one kind—the natural result of the writer's extremely limited knowledge of the country and the people, whom he was called upon to describe. To the best of our belief, Mr. Atkinson has never been stationed in any part of Bundelkhand, and if he has visited any even of its most historic sites it can only have been as a hurried traveller. His descriptions are therefore somewhat colourless; and the whole book is not so much what would be called in England a *County History* as a *County Directory*. The former is generally the result of the lifelong labour of some enthusiastic Dryasdust, who knows by heart the ramifications of every genealogical tree, and the date of every sculptured stone in the churches and castles of his neighbourhood; while the latter is manufactured by the agent of a London firm, who puts up for a night at the village inn, and fills in his blank forms after a consultation with the oldest inhabitant and the parish clerk. The information thus derived is at all events *ex ad voce*, and comes direct from the fountain-head; while that upon which Mr. Atkinson has been obliged mainly to depend has twice undergone the process of translation,—in its passage from the Hindi-speaking Patwāri to the Munshis of the Tahsil, and from them to the Assistant Magistrate, who reduced the chaotic facts into some semblance of order before transmitting them to the Gazetteer Office at Allahabad. With so many difficulties to surmount in the pursuit of accuracy, it is matter for congratulation that the errors to be eliminated are not more serious than they are; but it is well to bear in mind, whenever a reference is made to the volume, that the statements which it contains on matters of detail are neither those of an actual eye-witness, nor can have been very thoroughly checked.

It may also be regretted that while the whole

of Bundelkhand is populated almost exclusively by Hindûs, their historian is evidently a complete stranger to Hindu legends and literature at first hand, and is in the habit of consulting only either Muhammadan or pseudo-Muhammadan authorities, who are for the most part both prejudiced and ignorant. It is the necessary result of Mr. Atkinson's official good-fortune that he has never had much opportunity for mixing with a rural population or acquiring a knowledge of popular speech; but, except as regards the accumulation of statistics, his position at head-quarters has decidedly interfered with the completeness of his topographical researches. Thus under no other circumstances would it be possible to explain the fact of a civilian of 10 years' standing inditing such a sentence as the following:—"In 1872 the number of Baniyas in the Lalatpur district were, Jains 6,556, Sarangis 322, and Mahesris 26;" a form of expression which would be exactly paralleled by a statement that in some part of India the followers of the Prophet numbered 500, of whom 200 were Muhammadans and the remainder Musalmâns,—Jains and Sarangis being terms of identical import. The mistake must have arisen from the fact that the returns were supplied by different native officials, one of whom used the word Jaini, the other the word Sarangi; but it is none the less surprising that Mr. Atkinson was unable, or neglected, to reconcile the discrepancy. The lists of castes appended to the descriptions of the different towns in the second half of the volume supply other illustrations of a similar shortcoming. Thus, no mechanic is more necessary to an agricultural community than a carpenter, and one or two persons plying that useful trade will be found in almost every village. Ordinarily Mr. Atkinson gives their number under the familiar name 'Barhai,' by which as a matter of fact they are universally designated throughout the whole of Upper India. Munshi, however, in official documents often prefer to style them 'Darodgars;' and whenever they have done so he has followed their lead. He can scarcely have been ignorant of the usage; but in a book of statistics the retention of a double name is a defect which he should have been more careful to avoid. Similarly, 'Sweepers' in some of the lists appear as 'Bhañgis;' in others as 'Khâk-robe;' and, speaking generally, the office clerk—who in most cases would be a foreigner—has been too hastily accepted as the mouthpiece of the people. Thus it cannot for a moment be supposed that a Bundelkhandi knows the inner room of his dwelling-house by the Perso-Arabic name *hujra anda-rûai*, which is quoted by Mr. Atkinson. The Tahsildâr in his Urdu return used the word, no

doubt; but that is a matter of no interest to the reader, who is not taking a lesson in polite phraseology, but rather wants information about the genuine Bundelkhandi patois. In the same way, it is of no consequence to learn that the Tahsildâr of one part of the district uses the word *majnûn* for insane persons, while another prefers the term *pâgal*; or that one in his census tables brings 'idiots' under the heading *ham-samajh*, and 'lepers' under that of *korki*, while another calls the first class of unfortunates *fatir ul-akl*, and the second *jardas*. And why, when the number of blind, or deaf and dumb people is noted, Mr. Atkinson should have thought it worth while invariably to add that in the vernacular they were styled *andhe*, and *bakire aur guise*, is quite beyond our competency to explain; as the book does not profess to be an elementary vocabulary of Hindustani.

A list of words supposed to be peculiar to Bundelkhand is given in the first part of the volume; but it has not been very carefully compiled; many of the forms quoted as exceptional are common throughout the whole of Upper India; while those given in the comparison column as the rule are many of them comparatively rare. This is one indication of the writer's imperfect knowledge of colloquial usage, which is amazingly illustrated by his remarks on the *dhimars*, who (he says) "correspond and probably belong to the *ka hâr* caste elsewhere, but the word is perhaps peculiar, probably being a corruption of the Sanskrit *dhîrara*, a fisherman";—the fact being that the word is in daily use everywhere. It is also a defect that in the list of Fairs, the only two of which lengthy descriptions are given are the Muharram and the Râm Lîlâ. These are celebrated in every part of India, and might have been passed over with a bare mention of their name and date. Of the festivals peculiar to the district, and of which, therefore, some explanation would have been acceptable, the account given is most meagre, leaving it doubtful whether some—as for instance that of Mahâbîr—are Hindu or Jaini solemnities.

In the Preface it is stated that "the present volume is practically the first published in these Provinces in which an attempt at accuracy in transliteration has been made. The errors of the press are consequently very numerous." To this remark we think the Superintendent of the Press may very reasonably demur: for though he has not succeeded in producing a volume of very attractive exterior, and it certainly is by no means free from errors in spelling, these latter, so far as we can judge, are not due to carelessness in correcting the proofs, but rather to that fundamental defect on the part of the writer of which

we have already spoken. Thus *Jugal* for *Jugal*, *Anrudh* for *Aniruddh*, *Satarjit* for *Satrujit*, *gambir* for *gambhir*, *Rahas* for *Rās*, *gawdla* for *gwāla*, *Ranfor* for *Ranchhor*, &c. &c. are barbarous misspellings, but they are repeated so often as to leave no doubt that Mr. Atkinson approved of them; some being due to ignorance of the rules of Sanskrit etymology, and others to "fanciful derivations that he has elaborated for himself,"—a practice which he has not been able to avoid, though he condemns it in others. It also appears inconsistent to use such forms as *lambardār* and *sadr*—which, if any, may justly be called pedantic, and have been made exceptions by Government—and yet to adopt the unmeaning form *Lalumpur*, which is a halfway-house purely of his own invention between the exploded *Lallupoor*, and *Lalitpur*, which latter is not only correct, but has also received Government sanction.

As might be inferred from these indications of indifference to etymological accuracy, derivations of words are not often given,—and very wisely so, for such as we do find are quite of the pre-scientific type. Thus 'Banda' is said to be compounded of *bāma*, 'mental desire,' and *daatit*, 'given;' though the latter word has no existence either in Sanskrit or any other language; the former is incorrectly translated; and the two could never be combined so as to give such a result as *Bānda*. Again, if it had been recognized that *Kayan* was simply the Hindi abbreviation for *Karnavati*, the Sanskrit name of the chief river of Banda, its connection with *Karna* would certainly have been mentioned at page 127, where reference is made to the local names and legends that commemorate him and the other heroes of the *Mahābhārata*. The non-recognition arises from the writer's exclusive use of the Persian written character, in which it is impossible to make any distinction between *Ken* and *Kayan*; and the similarity of *Ken* to *Karna* is, it must be admitted, not very apparent. Again, *Sarwān*, translated 'a water-carrier,' really means nothing of the kind, but is the Sanskrit *Śrāman*, 'an ascetic.' In token of his vocation he is always represented as carrying a small earthen waterpot, known as a *kaṇḍāl*; and thus the origin of the error becomes intelligible, a *videz voce* explanation in which the waterpot was mentioned having been misunderstood. Further, to translate *Kānda-nāth*—the name of a place of pilgrimage—by 'Lordly giver of desires' is as little in accord with English idiom as it would be to speak of 'The lady-like giver of victory' meaning thereby 'Our Lady of Victory.' The precise intention of the Hindi compound was probably not apprehended; but it is more difficult to find an explanation for the disregard of Lindley Murray shown in such

sentences as the following:—"The principal divisions among the Brāhmanas are the Kanaujiyas," no others being enumerated. Again, "Over these is a row of what appear to be *ling* or *phallus*, some bearing a head, others the usual division of the *ling* or *phallus*." Again, on the same page: "Mahadeo also appears as Nandigan, with worshippers; Hanuman with his foot on the demon; and there is also a small seated figure with one standing and presenting an offering to it." As a bit of picturesque word-painting the following is also noticeable:—"The houses at Mau are well-built, with deep eaves of considerable beauty between the first and second stories, of pleasing outline throughout, with here and there a balcony-hung window quite beautiful." Again, to speak of a market as "held on every eighth day" instead of 'once a week,' which is what is intended, however literal a rendering of the Hindustāni document, is calculated to mislead an English reader who is not versed in Oriental idiom. As indications of the writer's slight knowledge of Hindu mythology, take the following passages: "The sixth temple is dedicated to Chaturbhuj, and the seventh to Vishnu in the boar-avatār;" which should be corrected to 'The sixth and seventh temples are both dedicated to Vishnu, in his two forms of Chaturbhuj and the Boar respectively.' Again, the sentence "There are two armed figures, one discharging an arrow (*Bir Badr*) and the other wielding a sword, called Mahādeo ka putr (son)" implies an error; for Virabhadra (to spell correctly) was himself the son of Mahādeva. But the most astonishing instance of the writer's scanty acquaintance with Indian literature is afforded by the following word in his description of Rājapur: "In Akbar's reign, a holy man Tulsi Dās, a resident of Soron, came to the jungle on the banks of the Jamnā, erected a temple and devoted himself to prayer and meditation." To judge from the date and locality, the Tulsi Dās intended by Mr. Atkinson's informant was the famous author of the *Rāmāyana*, a poet whose works have for the last three hundred years exercised more influence upon the great mass of the population of India than any other book ever written. So curt a notice of so celebrated a personage could only be paralleled by a Warwickshire topographer noting under the head of Stratford-on-Avon 'In the reign of Elizabeth a playwright by name Shakespeare was living in this town.' And with this we conclude, hoping that the next volume of our Provincial Gazetteer may comprise a more Muhammadan part of the country, where the editor's statistical skill may have equal scope, and his moderate acquaintance with Hindu legends and literature may not be quite so severely strained.

SKETCH OF SOME OF THE PRINCIPAL PLACES OF SNAKE-WORSHIP IN
KATHIÁWĀD, WITH A BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THÂN AND THE
DHÂNDHAL TRIBE OF KĀTHIS.

BY MAJOR J. W. WATSON, BHAUNAGAR.

THÂN is one of the most ancient places in India, and the whole of the neighbourhood is holy ground. Thân itself derives its name from the Sanskrit *sthân*, 'a place,' as though it were the place hallowed above all others by the residence of devout sages, by the excellence of its city, and by its propinquity to famous shrines, such as that of Trinetresvara, now called Tarnetar, the famous temple of the Sun at Kanḍola, and those of the Snake-brethren Wāsuki and Banduka, now known as Wāsāngji and Bāndiā Beli respectively. Thân is situated in that part of the province of Saurāshtrā called the Deva Panchāl—so called, it is said, from having been the native country of Draupadī, the wife of the five Pāṇḍava brethren, from which circumstance she was called Panchālī, and from her this division of the province is called the Panchāl, and because it is peculiarly sacred it is called the Deva Panchāl. Nor is Thân famous in local tradition only; one of the chapters of the *Skanda Purāṇa* is devoted to Trinetresvara and the neighbourhood, and this chapter is vulgarly called the *Thân Purāṇa* or *Tarnetar Māhātmya*. Here we learn that the first temple to the Sun was built by Rāja Māndhātā in the Satya Yuga. The city is said then to have covered many miles, and to have contained a population of 36,000 Brāhmins, 52,000 Vāṇiās, 72,000 Kshatriyas, and 90,000 Śūdrās—in all, 250,000 souls. Thân was visited also by Kṛishṇa and his consort Lakshmī, who bathed in the two tanks near the town, whence one has been called *Prītam*, a contraction from *Prīyatam*, 'the beloved,' after Kṛishṇa,—so called as being the beloved of the Gopīs; and the other *Kamala*, after Lakshmī, who from her beauty was supposed to resemble the *kamala* or lotus-blossom. The central fortress was called Kanḍola, and here was the celebrated temple of the Sun. Immediately opposite to Kanḍola is another hill, with a fort called in more recent times *Songadh*, and another large suburb was named Māṇḍvā. Within a few miles was the shrine of the three-eyed god Trinetresvara, one of the appellations of Śiva, and close to this

the celebrated *kund*, by bathing in which all one's sins were washed away. This *kund* was called, therefore, the Pāp nāś n or sin-expelling, as the forest in which it was situated was called the Pāpnuod-nu-vana or the Forest of the Sin-Destroyer. Close to Thân are the Māndhav hills, distinguished by this name from the rest of the Tāṅgā range, of which they form a part; and the remains of Māndbavgadh, such as they are, may be seen close to the shrine of Bāndiā Beli, the modern name of Banduka, one of the famed snake-brethren. But Thân is sadly fallen from its former state, when it could be said—

चोटीलो दे सुंदरी वीए माता होल ॥

वीसी नताल वखानीये द्वार चवारी पोळ ॥ १ ॥

(One gate is at) Chotila, a second at Sundari, the third at Mātā Hol :

Let us praise the fourth gate at Viso Natāl.

The shrine of Hol Mātā is in the lands of Mahika, under Wānkāner; Sundari is a Dhrāṅgadhurā village; while Viso Natāl is the shrine of a Mātā not far from Mali.

Modern tradition only carries us back as far as the Bābriās, who ruled here until driven out by the Parmārs, who were expelled by the Kāthis, who in their turn were dispersed by Shujaat Khān, Subāhdār of Gujarāt, and were succeeded by the Jhālās. The memory of their rule still survives in the following well-known couplet :—

इहो ॥ थान कंडोला मांडवा नवसे वाव कुवा

रणा पेला राजीया थान वावरीया इरा ॥ २ ॥

(At) Thân, Kanḍola, and Māṇḍvā there are 900 *vāds* and wells :

Before the rule of the Rāṇās the Bābriās reigned at Thân.

The Rāṇās alluded to in the couplet are the Jhālās, whose title is Rāṇā. The Bābriās were expelled by the Parmārs, who were driven out by Wāloji Kāthi when himself fleeing from Pāvargadh pursued by Jām Abrā. Jām Abrā, it is said, followed Wāloji to Thân and laid siege to the place, and Wāloji contemplated flight, when the Sun appeared to him in a dream and assured him of his aid. Wāloji risked a

battle, and Jām Abrā was defeated and forced to return to Kachh. Wāloji and his Kāṭhis now established themselves at Thān, and Wāloji, in gratitude to the Sun, repaired the temple of that luminary on the Kaṇḍola hill. This temple, as before stated, is said to have been founded by Rāja Māndhātā in the Satya Yuga, and there is no doubt that it is really a most ancient fane. It was, it is said, repaired by the celebrated Lākḥā Phulāni, who for a short time appears to have ruled here, though at what date does not appear, but the neighbourhood abounds in traces of this celebrated chieftain. A neighbouring village is named after him Lākḥā-mānchi, or 'Lākḥā's stool.' This temple has undergone so many repairs and rebuildings that the original structure has entirely disappeared, and its present appearance is by no means imposing. Wāloji had a daughter named Sonbāi, whom he made a priestess in this temple; he married her to one Wālerā Jalā, and gave her twelve villages as her marriage portion, and named after her the fort rebuilt on the hill opposite to Kaṇḍola, Songaḍh. The present village of Songaḍh is a few hundred yards from the old fort of Songaḍh, and the descendants of Wālerā Jalā to this day enjoy land at Songaḍh. As Sonbāi was a ministrant in the temple of the Sun, her offspring were called Bhagats (worshippers), and from her sprung that *shākhā* or sub-tribe of Kāṭhis called Bhagats.

The Parmārs are said to have entered Jhālāwār early in the 13th century (? Samvat), and to have received the Chovisis of Thān, Kaṇḍola, and Choṭagaḍh (now Choṭilā) as a reward for the extermination of Āso Bhīllā from Visaldeva, the then Wāghela sovereign of Wāḍwār, at this time the chief city of Jhālāwār. The grant was accompanied, however, with the condition that the Bābriās should be expelled, a condition which Visaldeva considered it impossible to effect. The Parmārs, however, succeeded in ousting the Bābriās, who fled thence to Dhāndhalpūr. The Parmārs did not hold Thān long, as they were ousted by the Kāṭhis under Wāloji, who, as mentioned above, was himself flying with his Kāṭhis from Jām Abrā.

When Kārtalab Khān (who had been honoured with the title of Shujaat Khān) was Subāhdār of Gujarāt, the Kāṭhis extended their marauding expeditions to the *khālsā* districts, harassing especially the parganās of Dhandhuka, Viram-

gām, and Dholka. Their excesses at length became so serious that Shujaat Khān, when on his usual *mulkdarī* circuit in Jhālāwār, marched from thence in about A.D. 1690 for Thān, which fort he stormed after a great slaughter of its defenders, dispersing the Kāṭhis and destroying the temple of the Sun. Since this, the Kāṭhis never returned to Thān, which was occupied by the Jhālās shortly afterwards. On this great dispersion of the Kāṭhis the Khāchar tribe made Choṭilā their head-quarters, which they had wrested from Jagsio Parmār previously; while the Khawads, who had acquired Sayla in about A.D. 1769, remained there. The Wālās' head-quarters were at Jetpūr-Chital, and the Khumāns' at Mitilā, and afterwards Sābar Kundla. At the time of Shujaat Khān's storm of Thān it was principally occupied by Dhāndhals, who have now been dispersed far and wide, and though still to be found as Mulgirāsīs in Kāthiāvād, their chief possessions lie in the Dhandhuka parganā, and to this day they retain, in memory of the snake-worship at the shrines of Wāsukhi and Bāndiā Belī which they had adopted, a great reverence for the Cobra. The Kāṭhis, as is well known, are divided into two principal divisions,—the Shākhāyat (called by Sir G. Le Grand Jacob the noble) tribes, and the Avartiās or Avarshākhayas—that is to say, those of other branches.

The Shākhāyats comprehend the three great tribes of Wālā, Khumān, and Khāchar, all of whom are descendants of the original Wālā Rājput who apostatized to Kāṭhidom. The only explanation I can give for the term is that the Wālā branch are called the branch 'Shākhā' *par excellence*, the Wālās being Suryāvāṇśī and of the same clan as the Rājā of Udaypūr. The Avartiās comprise the original Kāṭhis, as well as subsequent additions by outcasted Rājputs of other clans, who have intermarried with Kāṭhiānis. The most renowned of these Avartiā tribes are those of Dhāndhal and Khawad,—the former sprung from the Rāthod, and the latter from the Jhālā stock.

As the Dhāndhal tribe have not, I believe, been previously described, I will here briefly sketch their origin and principal sub-divisions. The Dhāndhals are a famous branch of the Rāthods, sprung, it is said, from Dhāndhal the

son of Āsothāmā. Of this stock was Dhāndhal Semarsingji, the chief of a small domain. Semarsingji married Phulbāi, a daughter of Rāo Mokāji, the Devra chieftain of Sirohi, and had by her two sons, viz. Rāmsingji and Kāmloji. Rāmsingji succeeded his father, and Kāmloji received some villages. Kāmloji had two sons, Baderāo and Pābu Rāo. Pābu Rāo ruled at Kālugadh, and married a daughter of the Sodhā chieftain of Amarkot, but while absent at Amarkot celebrating his nuptials Jādro Khichī carried off his mare from his village of Jhāyal. Pābu Rāo, on his return to Jhāyal with his wife the Sodhī, commenced hostilities against the Khichī, but was eventually slain. His wife, the Sodhī, though pregnant, vowed that she would not survive her lord, and when forbidden, on account of her condition, to become a *sati*, she ripped herself open, giving birth to a son, who, from the unusual manner of his birth was named Jharḍoji, from झड़जू, 'to lacerate.' This done, she ascended the funeral pile, and accompanied her lord through the flames, as became a faithful wife and a princess of her high descent. Jharḍoji on attaining manhood prosecuted his father's feud and slew Jādro Khichī. The Khichīs now banded together against Jharḍoji, who was forced to fly, together with his wife (a daughter of Parmār Rudrāpāl), to Kalanjhar, where the Parmār lady gave birth to a son named Badesar. Kalanjhar was at this time a holding of the Padhiār Rājputs, and Samarsing Padhiār reigned there. Here Jharḍoji took refuge, and married his son Badesar to Anopkūwar, only child of Samarsing. Jharḍoji died at Kalanjhar during Samarsing's lifetime, but his son Badesar succeeded that chieftain on the *gādī* of Kalanjhar and reigned there. Badesar had two sons, Kālārāo and Jasarājāo, who engaged in hostilities with the Khichīs of Kolamgaḍh. The Khichīs, however, slew Jasarājāo and defeated Kālārāo, who flying thence came to the Panchāl on his way to Dwārakā. While on his journey thither he came to the village of Lākhamānchi, near Thān, where there was a large encampment of Kāthīs. The Kāthīs invited Rāo Kālā to drink *kasumbā*, and he accepted their invitation. After drinking he asked them of what Rājput tribe they were, when they informed him that they were formerly Wālā Rājputs, but, owing to their ancestor Wāloji

having married a Kāthiāni, the daughter of Patgar, he had been outcasted, and that they his descendants were now Kāthīs. On hearing this Rāo Kālā perceived that he too would be outcasted, and thinking death preferable he drew his sword and pointed it towards his own breast, intending to slay himself. The Kāthīs, however, dissuaded him, and offered to give him their daughters in marriage. Rāo Kālā assented, and married three Kāthiānis, viz. Sujānde, daughter of Wālā Māndan; Modebāi, daughter of Khāchar Bajesar; and Rupdebāi, a daughter of Rām Khumān. After the marriage ceremonies were completed Rāo Kālā uttered the following couplet:—

कावो एम बोन्यो कम भव मर भर हेंदो* मोड ॥
वाळने बांधलाने हुद समपण हेंदी जोड ॥ २ ॥

Kālo thus spoke:—The *kamdhaj* is the crown of Mūrwād.

Between the Wālā and Dhāndhal is now the bond of marriage.

As Kālo was by tribe a Dhāndhal Rāthod, his descendants by his Kāthi wives are called Dhāndhal Kāthīs. The Dhāndhal Kāthīs are again subdivided into thirteen principal branches, viz. Jhānjhariās, Pākhdiās, Bābhānis, Dhāngdiās, Noriās, Rephdiās, Mokhāsiās, Sārwalās, Mālānās, Hālikās, Kherdiās, Dhādbānis, and Viramkās. Rāo Kālā had no offspring by the Wālā and Khumān ladies, but by Modebāi he had a son named Sagāl. Sagāl married a Khāchar lady named Rāndebāi, and also a daughter of Wālā Odhā named Māndebāi, and also a daughter of Rām Khāchar named Modebāi. By Modebāi he had nine sons, viz. Nāgsio, Bubā, Babio, Dhāngdio, Kālandrio, Mokhio, Varusio, Sajānko, Bubo-sāngar. The descendants of Bubā are called Jhānjhariās, and the descendants of Bubo-sāngar are called Pākhdiās. The descendants of Babio are called Bābhānis, and they live in the Bhādlā village of Deriāsarā. The descendants of Dhāngdio are called Dhāngdiās, and they enjoy *girās* in the Jeṭpūr village of Monpūr. The descendants of Kālandrio are called Toriās, and they enjoy *girās* in Wasāwad. The descendants of Mokhio are called Mokhāsiās, and they also live at Wasāwad. The descendants of Varusio are called Sārwalās, and they reside at and hold lands in Paliyād. The descendants of Sajānko are called Mālānās. The son of Nāgsio

* The use of the old genitive in *hāndo*, *hāndī*, &c. is worthy of remark, as it is one of the least common forms.

married Rupdebâi, daughter of Odhâ Khâchar, and by her he had two sons, Bâvdo and Nâgpâl. The descendants of Nâgpâl are called Hâlikâs, and they live in the village of Wârjî, under Dhandhuka. Bâvdo married a Khâchar lady named Modebâi, and had by her two sons, Jâdro and Kâlo. The descendants of Kâlo are called Kherdias, and live in the Dhandhuka village of Wârjî. Jâdro married Satubâi, daughter of Jeṭhsur Khâchar, and had by her one son, Nâho. Nâho married Râibâi, daughter of Kâlâ Khâchar, by whom he had one son, Gângo. From Gângo sprung Dhâdho of the Dhandhuka village of Samadhiâlâ. He bestowed on Châran Râkhâ *lâkh pasâe* in charity, and his descendants were styled Dhâdhâni. They are to be found at Samadhiâlâ aforesaid, and also at Devsar and Peplâ under Chotîla in Kâthiâvâd, and at Anandpûr and Mewâsâ in the same province. Dhâdho married a daughter of Mehrâm Khâchar named Modebâi, and had by her a son named Nâho. The descendants of Nâho are called Rephdias, as they resided at and enjoyed the village of Rephdi under Dhandhuka. Nâho married Mânkbâi, daughter of Kânâ Khâchar, and had by her two sons, Gângo and Viso. Viso's descendants are called Viramkhâs, and hold lands in the Dhandhuka village of Goriâ. Gângo married Dhandebâi, daughter of another Kânâ Khâchar, by whom he had eight sons, viz. Kumpo, Khimo, Kheho, Sângo, Suro, Nâgdân, Surâng, Kâno. Of these the eldest, Kumpo, married Rândebâi, daughter of Râm Khâchar, and had by her ten sons, viz. Ugo, Nâgsio, Devdâs, Budho, Gângo, Mâncho, Râm, Selâr, Jâdro, Dâho. Of these the eldest son, Ugo, married Rândebâi, daughter of Karapḍa Kândbâ.

The history of the two snake shrines at Thân is as follows:—

Brahmâ had a son named Mârchî, whose son was Kâsyapa. Kâsyapa had a hundred sons by a Nâga Kanya, the chief of whom were Śeshji, Wâsukhi (corrupted into Wâsangji), Banduk (corrupted into Bândiâ Beli), Dhumrâksh, Pratik, Payḍarik, Takshâk, Airâvat, Dhritârâshtra, &c. &c.

Five Rishis, named Karnâv, Gâlav, Ângira, Antath, and Bṛhaspati (all sons of Brahmâ), during the *Treta Yuga* set out on a pilgrimage round the world, and in the course of their wandering came to Deva Panchâl land, and encamping in the forest of Pâpâpnod, near

Thân, determined to perform here religious austerities. They accordingly commenced their ceremonies by performing the *Brahmgyadna* (or adoration to Brahma by means of the sacrificial fire). Information of their intention having reached Bhimâsur, who reigned at Bhimpuri, the modern Bhimora, he determined to throw obstacles in their way, and with this view commenced to annoy them, and owing to his persecution the Rishis were obliged to remove their residence to the banks of Pâchikunḍi tank, close to Thân, and there commence their penance. Their austerities were so severe that Brahma was pleased with them, and appeared before them in person. On this the Rishis implored him to destroy Bhimâsur Daitya. Brahma replied that Bhimâsur was destined to die at the hands of Śeshji, Wâsukhi, and others of the snake family, and that therefore they should address their prayers to them. So saying, Brahma became invisible, and the Rishis besought the snake deities to aid them, and the whole snake family appeared in answer to their entreaties. The Rishis requesting them to destroy Bhimâsur, Śeshji at once started for Bhimpuri, and there by the force of his poison slew Bhimâsur, and returning informed the Rishis of his death. They overwhelmed him with thanks, and begged him to reside constantly in Thân for their protection. As Śeshji was king of Pâtâl, he was unable to comply with their request; he however ordered his brothers Wâsukhi (Wâsangji) and Banduk (or Bândiâ Beli) to remain at Thân and Mândhavgaḍh respectively; and accordingly these two snake brethren took up their residence at Thân and Mândhavgaḍh respectively, where their shrines are to this day. Śeshji then became invisible. To the present day no one is allowed to cut a tree in the grove that surrounds Bândiâ Beli's shrine, and it is said that should any one ignorantly cut a stick in this grove, the snake appears to such person in his dreams and orders him to return the stick, and should he fail therein, some great calamity shortly befalls him; and in fact in or near this grove may be seen many such logs or sticks accidentally cut and subsequently returned. Some of the more famous snake brethren are (1) Śeshji, lord of Pâtâl, (2) Wâsukhi, (3) Banduk, all mentioned above, (4) Kâlî Nâga—this brother was a snake of renown; he first resided in the Kâlandrio pool of the Jamnâ river near

Gokal, in Hindustān proper. From hence he was ousted by Krishna, and is now supposed to reside in the island of Ramnak, near the shrine of Setubandh Rāmeśvara. (5) Bhujaṅga, who is worshipped at Bhuj. It is said that in ancient times the inhabitants of Kachh were harassed by Daityas and Rākshasas, and petitioned Śrī Wāsuki, who ordered his brother Bhujaṅga to go to their assistance. Bhujaṅga went, and, effecting their liberation, at their entreaties took up his residence in Bhuj, so named after him. He is popularly called the Bhujo. (6) Another famous brother is Dhūmrāksh, worshipped as the Khāmbhḍā Nāga in the village of Khāmbhḍā under Dhārūgadhrā. (7) Another Nāga shrine in Kāthiāwāḍ is that of Pratik at Talsānā in Jhālāwār, and another (8) is that of Devānik Charnālio in the village of Chokḍi under Chuḍā. The shrine of another brother, (9) Paṇḍarīka, is said to be at Paṇḍarpura, in the Dekhan. (10) Takshāk resides in Kurakshetra, (11) Airāvāt in Hastināpur, (12) Dhṛitarāshṭra in the Dekhan, &c. &c.

It will be seen from the above legend how intimately the old tree and snake worship are connected. The Nāgas seem to have been an aboriginal race in Gujarāt, and to have worshipped the Elephant, Cobra, Tiger, Monkey, and Trees; and the earlier Hindu immigrants have probably derived from them the cult of Gaṇeśa, Hanuman, Wāgheśvari, Mātās, &c. &c. In the lapse of time the descendants of these Hindu immigrants began to confound these Nāgas with whom they had intermarried with the Cobras (Nāgas), and eventually the legends of Nāga-kanyās, &c. sprang up.

Ere closing this I may mention that the most famous snake-shrine in Gujarāt, if not in India, is that of the celebrated Dharnīdhara or 'Earth-holder,' situated at the village of Dhēmā, a few miles to the N. W. of Tharād, in North Gujarāt. This shrine is visited by pilgrims from all parts

of India. There is a well-executed image of a cobra in the temple of the Dhēmāg, as the Dharnīdhara is locally called, and an inscription roughly executed beneath it. There is also an inscription relating to the Chohāns of Wāv-Tharād in another temple (the large one), the original Dhēmāg occupying an insignificant little shrine some little distance from the larger temple. Carvings of Nāgakanyās are not uncommon in the older temples of Gujarāt, and when at Pālanpur I found two representations of them in the ruins of Kānkar, probably the city whence the Kānkrej district was named. These I brought to the Superintendency Bungalow. There are many other local shrines in Gujarāt and Kāthiāwāḍ where the Cobra is worshipped, but these are the most famous that I am acquainted with. I cannot perhaps more fitly conclude these rough notes than by quoting the following *kavita* in honour of Thān:—

॥ कवित ॥ थान युक्तम संधाम धोजेश्वर ॥
 नमिधवसुकी देव वीराजे ॥
 शीर मुरादकी धामिधवसेध ॥
 सुरजदेवकी जानर छजे ॥
 तीरथ भावन जीव जीनेव ते ॥
 कोटी जन्मको पावक भाजे ॥
 भजले रामके नाम भजे कीन ॥
 ताघट नोवन नामकी वाजे ॥ १ ॥

The place Thān is the excellent site of Dho-leśvara, and the famous Wāsuki Deva also honours it with his presence.

To the steadfast devotee the place is as it were adorned with a flag, and the place of pilgrimage of Suraj Dev adorns it also.

Should any one perform the pilgrimage of Trinetra,

Then he will destroy the sins of 10 millions of (previous) existences.

Pronounce the name of Rāma. Why do you not pronounce it?

In the heart (of the true worshipper) the drums of his name are (perpetually) beating.

NATIVE CUSTOMS IN THE GODĀVARĪ DISTRICT.*

BY REV. JOHN CAIN, DUMAGUEDEM.

Respect paid to a Dog.

The following custom prevails amongst the Brāhmins, as well as amongst the lower Śūdras. At a certain time whilst a woman is pregnant, a number of her female friends assemble and pour

before the door of the room where she is, a quantity of paddy-husk and set fire to it. To one doorpost they tie an old shoe, to the other a bush of *tulasi* (*Ocimum basilicum*), in order to prevent the entrance of any demon. After the woman

* I have since learned that the custom of paying respect to the dog during the woman's pregnancy prevails over great part of South India.

has bathed, she performs *pūjā* to the Gavirī Devī in the manner related below. The friends first bring in the stone on which the articles of food are usually bruised, and the stone roller, colour them with saffron, place a mark upon them in the way they daily mark their own foreheads, burn incense and place an oblation (the *naivedyam*) before them. This done, they bring in a bitch, colour it, mark it, burn incense before it, and also place the *naivedyam* before it. The woman then makes obeisance to it, and it is given a good meal of curry and rice. Cakes are also placed upon the curry and rice, and if there happens to be in the room a woman who has not hitherto been blessed with children she eagerly seizes some of the cakes, in the hope that by so doing she may ere long have a child.

The Dog-idol.

Two hundred years ago a Brāhmaṇ in the village of Natta Rāmeśvara, in the Godāvarī delta, had the misfortune to kill a dog. Grieving on account of his sin, he took counsel with the chief Brāhmaṇs of the village as to the best way of making expiation, and received the following advice:—"Build a temple in Rāmeśvara which is in the Gostanadi, place an image of a dog therein, and after your daily ablutions perform *pūjā* to the dog, and then your sin will be pardoned." He complied with their advice in every respect. The attention of the pilgrims to the neighbouring temple at Rāmeśvara was soon attracted by this new building, and on learning the cause of its erection they worshipped there as well as in the larger edifice, and thus the custom has continued to the present day.

Natta Rāmeśvara.

Natta is the Telugu for a snail, shell-fish, cockle, &c.

A large number of pilgrims from the neighbouring districts resort to this village on the occasion of the yearly festival. The following legend is told as the reason of the building of the temple:—In years gone by, a certain king who lived in a country to the east of the Godāvarī called one of his leading men and commissioned him to go and buy a number of horses, elephants, and camels. As the man was journeying in search of these, he slept one night in the village of Rāmeśvara, and dreamed that a snail appeared to him and told him that he was going to dwell in the village under the form of a *līnga*, and as he wanted a temple

the man must build him one. The next morning the man told his dream to the chief men of the village, and resolved to obey the command. Accordingly he procured a large number of stones, laid the foundation two fathoms deep in the Gostanadi, and built the shrine. Immediately afterwards a *līnga* about two feet high, composed of snail-shells, appeared in the temple. He then built a wall all round, about twelve feet high, and cut upon it elephants, horses, and camels. Having completed the whole, he returned to his master, and in answer to the inquiries respecting his purchases replied that he had done as he had been ordered, but was unable to convey them home and had left them all in Rāmeśvara. The king immediately sent off other servants to inquire into the truth of the statements, and when they returned and confirmed the whole, resolved to go and see for himself. He did so, and on discovering what had really occurred was so pleased with the piety of his servant that he gave him a village.

A *līnga* is still worshipped in the village, and elephants, horses, and camels are engraved upon the wall of the court.

Gostanadi.

This is a small but very winding channel near Natta Rāmeśvara, only filled with water during the rains or a rise in the Godāvarī.

In former times there were some saints (*munis*) performing their *tapas* in the village of Kovvuru, near Rājāmandri. They obtained their meat and drink in a remarkable way. Every morning they went to the palmyra-trees of the village, bent them down very low, and attached their pots to the crowns of the trees, and forthwith they were filled with toddy sufficient to satisfy their thirst during the whole of the coming day. They then took a number of millet seeds, scattered them in the neighbouring fields, and immediately a ripe crop appeared, which they cut, and threshed, and ate the same day. One day a cow brought forth a calf in the place where they were performing their devotions, but, lo! before the calf fell to the ground, Garutmatudu flew down and bore it away to the skies. The cow, in great distress at being unable to follow her calf, carefully pursued its shadow, and as she went winding here and there her milk fell to the ground and formed a stream, to the channel of which the name Gostanadi was given. *Gostanam* = cow's teat.

RELIGIOUS AND MORAL SENTIMENTS FREELY TRANSLATED FROM
SANSKRIT WRITERS.

BY J. MUIR, D.C.L., LL.D., PR.D., EDINBURGH.

(Continued from vol. III. page 337.)

SECOND SERIES.

1. Svetâśvatara Upanishad, iii. 19. *The Great Spirit.*

No hands has He, nor feet, nor eyes, nor ears,
And yet he grasps, and moves, and sees, and
hears.

He all things knows, Himself unknown to all;
Him men the great primeval Spirit call.

2. Mahâbhârata, iii. 1140 ff.* *Impeachment
and Vindication of the Divine Government.*

Draupadi speaks :

Beholding noble men distressed,
Ignoble men enjoying good,
Thy righteous self by woe pursued,
Thy wicked foe by fortune blest,
I charge the Lord of all—the strong,
The partial Lord—with doing wrong.

His dark, mysterious, sovereign will
To men their several lots decrees;
He favours some with health and ease,
Some dooms to every form of ill.

As puppets' limbs the touch obey
Of him whose fingers hold the strings,
So God directs the secret springs
Which all the deeds of creatures sway.

In vain those birds which springes hold
Would seek to fly; so man a thrall,
Fast fettered, ever lives, in all
He does or thinks by God controlled.

As trees from river-banks are riven
And swept away, when rains have swelled
The streams, so men by God impelled
To action, helpless, on are driven.

God does not show for all mankind
A parent's love and wise concern;
But acts like one unfeeling, stern,
Whose eyes caprice and passion blind.

Yudhishthira replies :

I've listened, loving spouse, to thee,
I've marked thy charming, kind discourse,
Thy phrases turned with grace and force,
But know, thou utterest blasphemy.

I never act to earn reward;

I do what I am bound to do,

Indifferent whether fruit accrue;

'Tis duty I alone regard.

Of all the men who care profess

For virtue—love of that to speak—

The unworthiest far are those who seek

To make a gain of righteousness.

Who thus—to every lofty sense

Of duty dead—from each good act

Its full return would fain extract;—

He forfeits every recompense.

Love duty, thus, for duty's sake,

Not careful what return it brings;

Yet doubt not, bliss from virtue springs,

While woe shall sinners overtake.

By ships the perilous sea is crossed;

So men on virtue's stable bark

Pass o'er this mundane ocean dark,

And reach the blessed heavenly coast.

If holy actions bore no fruits;

If self-command, beneficence,

Received no fitting recompense;

Then men would lead the life of brutes:

Who then would knowledge toil to gain?

Or after noble aims aspire?

O'er all the earth delusion dire

And darkness dense and black would reign.

But 'tis not so: for saints of old

Well knew that every righteous deed

From God obtains its ample meed:

They therefore strove pure lives to lead,

As ancient sacred books have told.

The gods—for such their sovereign will—

Have veiled from our too curious ken

The laws by which the deeds of men

Are recompensed with good and ill.

No common mortal comprehends

The wondrous power, mysterious skill,

With which these lords of all fulfil

Their high designs, their hidden ends.

These secret things those saints descry
Alone whose sinless life austere
For them has earned an insight clear,
To which all mysteries open lie.

So let thy doubts like vapours flee,
Abandon impious unbelief;
And let not discontent and grief
Disturb thy soul's serenity.

But study God aright to know,
That highest Lord of all revere,
Whose grace on those who love him here
Will endless future bliss bestow.

Draupadi rejoins :

How could I God, the Lord of all,
Contemn, or dare his acts arraign,
Although I weakly thus complain?
Nor would I virtue bootless call.

I idly talk; my better mind
Is overcome by deep distress
Which long shall yet my heart oppress:—
So judge me rightly; thou art kind.

3. Naishadha Charita, xviii. 45. *Whether the doctrine of future retribution be true.*

The scripture says, the bad begin,
When dead, with woe to pay for sin,
While bliss awaits—a happier birth—
The good whene'er they quit the earth.
But now, we see, the bad are blest,
And righteous men on earth distressed.
How then, this doubtful case decide?
Tell what is urged on either side.

Did God exist omniscient, kind,
And never speak his will in vain,
'Twould cost him but a word, and then
His suppliants all they wish would find.
If God to men allotted woe,

Although that woe the fruit must be
Of men's own actions, then were he
Without a cause his creatures' foe,—
More cruel, thus, than men, who ne'er
To others causeless malice bear.

In this our state of human birth
Man's self and Brahma co-exist,—
As wise Vedantists all insist,—
But when this wretched life on earth
Shall end, and all redemption gain,
Then Brahma shall alone remain.
A clever doctrine here we see!
Our highest good to cease to be!

4. Vishnu Purāṇa, iv. 24, 48 ff. *The Vanity of Human Ambition.*

How many kings—their little day
Of power gone by—have passed away,
While yet the stable Earth abides,
And all the projects vain derides
Of men who deemed that She was theirs,
The destined portion of their heirs.

With bright autumnal colours gay,
She seems to smile from age to age,
And mock the fretting kings who wage
Fierce war for Her,—for ampler sway.

"Though doomed," she cries, "to disappear
So soon, like foam that crests the wave,
Vast schemes they cherish, madly brave,
Nor see that death is lurking near.

"And kinsmen, brothers, sons and sires,
Whom selfish love of empire fires,
The holiest bands of nature rend,—
In bloody strife for Me contend.

"O! how can princes, well aware
How all their fathers, one by one,
Have left Me here behind, and gone,
For My possession greatly care?"

King Prithu strode across the world,
And all his foes to earth he hurled.
Beneath his chariot-wheels—a prey
For dogs and vultures—crushed they lay.
Yet, snatched by Time's resistless blast,
He long from hence away has passed:
Like down the raging flames consume,
He, too has met the common doom.

And Kārtavīrya, once so great,
Who ruled o'er all the isles, supreme,
Is but a shadow now, a theme
On which logicians subtly prate.

Those lords of men, whose empire's sheen
Of yore the regions all illumed,
By Death's destroying frown consumed,
Are gone: no ashes e'en are seen!

Mindhātri once was world-renowned;
What forms his substance now? a tale!
Who, hearing this, if wise, can fail
This mundane life to scorn, so frail,
So dreamlike, transient, worthless found?

Of all the long and bright array
Of kings whose names tradition shows,
Have any ever lived? Who knows?
And now where are they? None can say.

5. Mahābhārata, xii. 529, 6641, and 9917. "As having nothing, and yet possessing all things."
(2 Corinthians, vi. 10.)

How vast my wealth, what joy I taste,
Who nothing own, and nought desire !
Were this fair city wrapt in fire,
The flame no goods of mine would waste.

6. Mahābhārata, xi. 75. "For we brought nothing into this world, and it is certain we can carry nothing out." (1 Timothy, vi. 7.)

Wealth either leaves a man, O king !
Or else a man his wealth must leave.
What sage for that event will grieve,
Which time at length must surely bring ?

7. Mahābhārata, xi. 75. *The foolish discontented ; the wise content.*

Though proudly swells their fortune's tide,
Though evermore their hoards augment,
Unthinking men are ne'er content :
But wise men soon are satisfied.

8. Vṛiddha Chāṇakya, xiv. 6. *Men should think on their end.*

Did men but always entertain
Those graver thoughts which sway the heart,
When sickness comes, or friends depart,
Who would not then redemption gain ?

9. Mahābhārata, iii. 17401. "All men think all men mortal but themselves." (Young's *Night Thoughts*.)

Is not those men's delusion strange
Who, while they see that every day
So many sweeps from earth away,
Can long themselves to elude all change ?

10. Dampatīśikṣā, 26 : Prakṛottara-ratna-mālā, 15. *Who are the really blind, deaf, and dumb ?*

That man is blind whose inner eye
Can nought beyond this world descry ;
And deaf the man on folly bent,
On whom advice is vainly spent.
The dumb are those who never seek
To others gracious words to speak.

- Vṛiddha Chāṇakya, xvii. 6 ; Subhāshitārṇava, 163. *Men devout when in distress.*

In trouble men the gods invoke ;
When sick, submit to virtue's yoke ;
When lacking power to sin, are good ;
When poor, are humble, meek, subdued.

12. Sārṅgadharā's Paddhati, Dharmavivṛiti, 4. *Improvement of time.*

The sage will ne'er allow a day
Unmarked by good to pass away ;
But waking up, will often ask,
"Have I this day fulfilled my task ?
With this, with each day's setting sun,
A part of my brief course is run."

13. Mann, ii. 238. *A man may learn from the humblest.*

From whomsoever got, the wise
Accept with joy the pearl they prize.
To them the mean may knowledge teach,
The lowliest lofty virtue preach.
Such men will wed, nor view with scorn
A lovely bride though humbly born.
When sunlight fails, and all is gloom,
A lamp will well the house illumine.

14. Bhāgavata Purāṇa, x. 22, 35. *The proper aim of life.*

He only does not live in vain
Who all the means within his reach
Employs, his wealth, his thought, his speech
To advance the weal of other men.

15. Mahābhārata, v. 1272 ; xii. 11023. *Men are formed by their associates.*

As cloth is tinged by any dye
In which it long time plunged may lie ;
So those with whom he loves to live
To every man his colour give.

16. Hitopadeśa, iv. *Casting pearls before swine.*

He only threshes chaff who schools
With patient kindness thoughtless fools.
He writes on shifting sand who fain
By favours worthless men would gain.

17. Subhāshitārṇava, 64. *Heirs often spendthrifts.*

How many foolish heirs make haste
The wealth their father saved, to waste !
Who does not guard with care the pelf
He long has toiled to hoard himself ?

18. Mahābhārata, xii. 12131. *The rich hath many friends.*

A rich man's kinsfolk while he thrives
The part of kinsmen gladly play :
The poor man's kindred die away
Long e'er his day of death arrives.

19. Panchatantra, 1. 15. *The same.*

A wealthy man ev'n strangers treat
As if they were his kinsmen born :
The poor man's kindred all with scorn
His claim to kinship basely meet.

20. Vṛiddha Chāṇakya, 32. *What energy
can effect.*

Mount Meru's peak to scale is not too high,
Nor Hades' lowest depth to reach too deep,
Nor any sea too broad to overleap,
For men of dauntless, fiery energy.

21. Śārngadhara's Paddhati, Dhana-prasaṁsā,

12. *What will not men do to get wealth ?*

For gold what will not mortals dare ?
What efforts, struggles, labours spare ?
The hostile warrior's sword they brave,
And plunge beneath the ocean wave.

22. Panchatantra, 10. 5 (Bomb. ed.); Vṛiddha
Chāṇakya, 15. 10, &c. *Ars longa, vita brevis ;
The essence of books to be got.*

The list of books is long ; mishaps arise
To bar the student's progress ; life is brief ;
Whatever, then, in books is best and chief,
The essence, kernel, that attracts the wise.

23. Panchatantra (Bomb. ed.), iii. 92 and v.
49. *Love of Home.*

Not such is even the bliss of heaven
As that which fills the breasts of men
To whom, long absent, now 'tis given
Their country once to see again,
Their childhood's home, their natal place,
However poor, or mean, or base.

24. Mahābhārata, xii. 5497 ff. *A house
without a wife is empty : Description
of a good wife.*

Although with children bright it teems,
And full of light and gladness seems,
A man's abode without a wife
Is empty, lacks its real life.
The housewife makes the house ; bereft
Of her a gloomy waste 'tis left.

That man is truly blest whose wife,
With ever sympathetic heart,
Shares all his weal and woe ; takes part
In all th' events that stir his life ;
Is filled with joy when he is glad,
And plunged in grief when he is sad,

Laments whene'er his home he leaves,
His safe return with joy perceives,
With gentle words his anger stills,
And all her tasks with love fulfils.

25. Mahābhārata, xii. 3440, 3450, and
elsewhere. *Description of a good king.*

That man alone a crown should wear
Who's skilled his land to rule and shield :
For princely power is hard to wield—
A load which few can fitly bear.

That king his duty comprehends
Who well the poor and helpless tends,
Who wipes away the orphan's tears,
Who gently calms the widow's fears,
Who, like a father, joy imparts,
And peace, to all his people's hearts ;
On vicious men and women frowns,
The learn'd and wise with honour crowns :
Who well and wisely gifts, on those
Whose merits claim reward, bestows ;
His people rightly guides and schools,
On all impressing virtue's rules ;
Who day by day the gods adores,—
With offerings meet their grace implores ;
Whose vigorous arms his realm protects,
And all insulting foes subjects ;
Who yet all laws of war observes,
And ne'er from knightly honour swerves.

26. Mahābhārata, iii. 1055. *Mercy should
be shown to ignorant offenders.*

When men from want of knowledge sin,
A prince to such should mercy show.
For skill the right and wrong to know
For simple men is hard to win.

27. Rāmāyaṇa, vi. 115. 41. *Compassion
should be shown to all men.*

To bad as well as good, to all,
A generous man compassion shows.
On earth no mortal lives, he knows,
Who does not oft through weakness fall.

28. Mahābhārata, xiii. 651. *"The wolf
also shall dwell with the lamb," &c.
(Isaiah, xi. 6).*

With serpents weasels* kindly play,
And harmless tigers sport with deer ;
The hermit's holy presence near
Turns hate to love—drives fear away.
(To be continued.)

* The Mongoose (*Herpestes Ichneumon*) belongs to the order Mustelidæ (Weasels).—Ed.

SANSKRIT AND OLD CANARESE INSCRIPTIONS.

BY J. F. FLEET, Esq., B.A. C. S.

(Continued from page 181.)

In connexion with the preceding Kādamba inscription, the notes made by me, when travelling through the Canarese Country as Educational Inspector of the Southern Division, of inscriptions at Baṅkāpūr, Hānagal, and Banavāsi,—all of them Kādamba capitals,—may usefully be inserted here.

Baṅkāpūr.

Baṅkāpūr is about six miles to the S. by E. of Siggāum, the present head-quarters of the Siggāum or Baṅkāpūr Tālukā of the Dhārwad District.

The inscriptions are all in the Fort. No. 1:—Leaning up against a wall to the right of the entrance to the Fort from the E. there is a large stone-tablet bearing an inscription of fifty-nine lines, each line containing about thirty-seven letters, in the Old Canarese characters and language. The inscription is for the most part in fine order; but the fourth line has been deliberately cut out and almost entirely obliterated, and there are fissures in the tablet which would probably result in its falling to pieces if an attempt were made to remove it to a safer place of custody. The emblems at the top of the tablet have been wilfully defaced; but there are traces of the following:—In the centre, a *linga*; on its right, a seated or kneeling figure, with the sun above it and a cow and calf beyond it; and on its left, an officiating priest, with the moon above him and

a figure of Basava beyond him. The inscription is dated in the Śaka year 977 (A. D. 1055-6), being the Maumatha *saṁvatsara*, while the Chālukya King Gaṅgapérmanadi-Vikramādityaśa, the son of Trailōkyamalladeva; the supreme lord of the city of Kuvalāpura†; the lord of Nandagiri; he whose crest was an infuriated elephant,—was ruling the Gaṅgavādit‡ Ninety-six-thousand and the Banavāsi Twelve-thousand, and while the Great Chieftain Harikēsarideva, the glory of the family of the Kādamba emperor Mayūravarmā§, was governing the Banavāsi Twelve-thousand as his subordinate. The inscription proceeds to record the grant of some land in the Nidagundage Twelve, which was a *kaṇṇana*|| of the Pānnāgal Five-hundred, to a Jain temple, by Harikēsarideva, his wife Lachchaladevi, the assemblage of the five religious colleges of Baṅkāpura, the guild of the Nagaramahājana, and “The Sixteen.”¶ Harikēsarideva’s titles are of much the same purport as some of those of Śivachitta in the Kādamba inscription of Gulhalli and of Jayakēsi III. in the Kādamba inscription of Kittūr*, and most of them are repeated in the short inscription, No. 2, of which a transcription is given below. His name does not occur in Sir W. Elliot’s list of the Kādambas, and I cannot yet determine what his place in the genealogy should be.

Nos. 2 and 3.—Further on in the fort there is a fine old Jain temple called Arvattukam-

* Vikramāditya II. of Sir W. Elliot; according to the same authority his reign extended from Śaka 998 to Śaka 1042. The discrepancy between the dates of his reign and of the present inscription may be accounted for on the supposition that Vikramāditya was the Yuvārāja or Viceroy, in charge of the two districts referred to, during his father’s reign and before he himself ascended the throne of the Chālukyas on the death of his elder brother Śōmēśvaradeva II. Gaṅgapérmanadi or Gaṅgapérmanadi was also adopted as a Kādamba title.

† The Kūḷāpura of line 18 of inscription No. II of the series now commenced; the name occurs again as Kuvalāpura in line 33 of Major Dixon’s No. 71. This and the following two titles are also Kādamba titles.

‡ The final ‘t’ of this word in the original may be a mistake. The Ninety-six-thousand District is mentioned in the Nāgamandala copper-plate inscription published by Mr. Rice at pp. 156 et seqq. of Vol. II. of the *Indian Antiquary*; in note 11, page 161, the name of it is given as Gaṅgavāḍi, and it is said to have been called the Ninety-six-thousand District from its yielding a revenue of 96,000 pagodas; but districts are usually named in this way from the number of towns included in them. The Gaṅgavāḍi

Ninety-six-thousand is mentioned again in line 3 of No. 113 of Major Dixon’s work.

§ Mayūravarmā is given by Sir W. Elliot as the first in the Kādamba genealogy of Banavāsi and the founder of the family. The Kādambas of Goa (Gōve, Gōpakapattana, or Gōpakapuri) state in their inscriptions at Dēgāve and Halsi (Palāṅkū, Palāṅge, or Palāsi) in the Belgaum district that the founder of their family was Trailōcinakadamba, the Trinetrakadamba of Dr. Buchanan’s *Journey through Mysore, Canara, and Malabar*. According to Jain traditions given in Dr. Buchanan’s book it was Mayūravarmā who, though himself a Jain king, first introduced Vēdīc Brāhman into the Tuluva country; according to the Belgaum traditions, the Brāhman had been previously in the Tuluva country, but they did not like it and were always running away to Abichchitra, from which place Mayūravarmā brought them back, effected some reforms, and reinstated them.

|| See note † to the translation of No. II of the present series, page 211 below.

¶ *Baṅkāpuraḍa paṅcamaṣṭha (ṣa)sthānamahā nagaramahājanamahā pādīnagarah.*

* See pp. 296 et seqq. of No. XXVII, Vol. X Jour. Bomb. Br. R. As. Soc.

twenty-three letters each; the characters of this and the following inscription are smaller than those of the preceding. It records a grant made by Bammagāvaṇḍa of Kiriya-Baṅkāpura* to the god Nagarēśvaradēva of Baṅkāpura. The date is the same as that of the preceding. No. 6:—The lowest of the three consists of twelve lines of about twenty-three letters each. It records a grant made by a Daṇḍanāyaka, whose name I could not read with certainty, in the reign of the Chālukya Tribhuvanamalla, i.e. Vikramāditya II. The date is effaced, but the name of the *śāstasvara* is legible, viz. Śrīmukha; accordingly the date must be the sixteenth year of Vikramāditya II. or Śaka 1013 (A.D. 1091-2). No. 7:—The inscription on the left hand consists of thirty-seven lines of about seventeen letters each. It records grants made to the Jain temple of Kiriya-Baṅkāpura by Mādigavṇḍa and other village-headmen in the Subhakti *śāstasvara*, being the forty-fifth year of the Chālukya king Vikrama†. These four inscriptions are in tolerably good condition.

Hānagal.

Hānagal, the ancient Pānuṅgal, the headquarters town of the Tālukā of the same name in the Dhārwad District, is about fifteen miles to the S.W. of Baṅkāpūr. There are a great number of monumental stones here, but only three inscriptions proper. Of the monumental stones some are very large and elaborate and curious; particularly two by the tank near the Revenue Bungalow. Of the inscriptions one only, at the temple of Hanumāndēva in the fields of Haḷēkōṣi, would repay examination; I had no time to give any attention to it. Near this inscription there is a small temple with some curious and interesting sculptures of Nāga men and women &c.

In the town there is a fine old Jain temple in the centre chamber of which a large stone lotus is pendent from the roof. In the same chamber the Ashtadikpālas,—guardians of the eight points of the compass,—are represented in excellent sculptures in panels pointing towards their respective stations.

Banavāsi.

Banavāsi is situated in the District of North Canara, on the confines of Maisūr, about fifteen miles to the E. by S. of Śirsi. The old forms of its name, as met with in inscriptions, are

Vanavāsi, 'the abode in the forest',—the original form; Banavāsi; Banavāse; and Banavase; and another name of it would appear to be Jayantipura. It is a place of considerable age and reputed sanctity. Probably the earliest authentic notice of it is to be found in the large Cave-alphabet inscription, dated Śaka 507 (A.D. 585-6), in the Śaiva temple at Aihole in the Hunagund Tālukā of the Kalāḍgi District,—Plate No. 3 of Mr. Hope's work; in line 9 we are told that the Chālukya king Pulikēśi II. reduced to subjection "Vanavāsi, which was girt about by the river Hamsānadi glistening with the hue of the high waves of the Varadā, and which rivalled with its prosperity the city of the gods." Banavāsi would appear to have been at that time the capital, or one of the capitals, of an early branch of the Kādamba dynasty. The Varadā, modern Wardā, flows close under the walls of the present town, and Hamsānadi is probably the old name of a tributary stream of some size that flows into it about seven miles higher up.

The inscriptions are all in and around the great temple of Madhukēśvaradēva; they are all in the Old Canarese characters and language. Four of them are on stones set upright in the ground on the right and left of the portico of the temple, and four are on stones leaning against the wall of the temple enclosure. The temple seems to be of considerable antiquity, but it is not remarkable for architectural beauty. Dr. Buchanan gives an account of some of the inscriptions of Banavāsi and its neighbourhood; but he was dependent for information as to their contents upon a Brāhmaṇa priest called Madhuliṅga who, to conceal his ignorance of the subject, drew pretty freely upon his power of imagination, and the result was the communication of a great deal of nonsense.

No. 1:—This inscription is in a state of very fine preservation. It is partially buried in the ground on the left as one faces the centre shrine; above the ground there are thirty-eight lines of about thirty-seven letters each. The emblems at the top of the tablet have been entirely effaced with the exception of part of the *līga*. The inscription opens with the statement that the earth was governed by the kings of the Chālukya race, sprung from Mānasabhava. The Chālukya king mentioned by name is Vibhu-

* i.e., 'the lesser Baṅkāpura.'

† i.e. in the Śaka year 1042 (A.D. 1120-1).

Vikramadavala-Pērmāḍidēva or Vikramāditya-dēva.* The inscription then proceeds to give the genealogy of a Kadamba chieftain Kirttidēva, who was the subordinate of this king. The first of the Kadambas mentioned is king Chatta or Chattuga, who acquired also the name of Katakadagōva. His son was Jayasimha. Jayasimha had five sons, Māvuli, Taila or Tailapa, Śāntayadēva, Jōkidēva, and Vikramānka.† The greatest among these was Tailapa, and to him and his wife Chāvāṇḍaladēvi was born king Kirtti. The inscription then proceeds to record grants that were made while the Great Chieftain king Kirttidēva was governing the Banavāse Twelve-thousand. The portion containing the record of the grants and the date of the inscription is below the ground. The titles of Kirttidēva are very similar to those of Jayakēsi III in the Kittūr stone referred to above.

No. 2.—The stone-tablet containing this inscription also is partially buried in the ground. Above the ground there are twenty-seven lines of about twenty-three letters each. The emblems at the top of the stone, very rudely engraved, are representations of the *līnga* and Basava, with the sun and moon above them. The inscription is well-preserved and records grants made in the Śaka year 1290 (A. D. 1368-9), being the Kilaka *saṁvatsara*, while the Mahāpradhāna or Prime-Minister Mādhavānka was governing the Banavase Twelve-thousand under the king Virabukkarāya who was ruling at Hastināvatipura‡. This Prime-Minister is the celebrated Mādhavāchārya-Vidyāranya, the elder brother of Śāyanāchārya§, the author of commentaries on the Rīgvēda and other works; Mādhavāchārya himself was a scholar and author and was associated in some of his writings with his brother. Bakkarāya,—the younger brother of Harihara I; the son of Saṅgama of the Yādava family; and the father of Harihara II,—succeeded his elder brother on the throne of Vijayanagara.

* Vikramāditya II of Sir W. Elliot.

† In Sir W. Elliot's Kadamba genealogy, these five are given as the sons of Mayūravarmā II, and the names of Chatta, Jayasimha, Chāvāṇḍaladēvi, and Kirttidēva do not occur.

‡ 'Hastināvatipura' is perhaps a Sanskrit form of 'Ānēgundi,' the ancient name of the site on which Vijayanagara was built, and in later times the popular name of Vijayanagara itself.

§ In the colophon of the Mādhavāchārya-piṭṭi, quoted in a footnote to page 192 of Vol. V. of Dr. Reinhold

No. 3.—The stone-tablet containing this inscription stands by the side of No. 2. The emblems at the top of the tablet are:—In the centre, a *līnga*; on its right, a cow and calf with the sun above them; and on its left, a lion with the moon above it. The inscription consists of twenty-nine lines of about twenty-five letters each, and records grants made in the Śaka year 990 (A. D. 1068-9), being the Kilaka *saṁvatsara*, while the Great Chieftain Kirttivarṇadēva||,—the supreme lord of Banavāsīpura; he who had on his banner a representation of (Garuḍa) the king of birds ¶; and whose crest was a lion,—was governing the Banavāsī Twelve-thousand. Just below the date a large portion of the surface of the stone has been chipped off; the rest of the inscription is in very good order.

No. 4.—The stone-tablet containing this inscription is on the right as one faces the central shrine. The emblems at the top of the tablet consist of a *līnga* with the sun above it and a figure of Basava with the moon above it. The inscription consists of thirty-seven lines of about twenty-five letters each. The letters are of a large and somewhat modern type and are rather illegible and difficult to read. Owing to this and to my being pressed for time I could make out no more than that the inscription is dated Śaka 1321 (A. D. 1399—1400), being the Vikrama *saṁvatsara*, or, perhaps, Śaka 1521 (A. D. 1599—1600), being the Vilambi or Vikāri *saṁvatsara*; the first syllable only of the name of the *saṁvatsara* is legible.

No. 5.—The stone containing this inscription stands up against the N. wall of the enclosure of the temple. The emblems at the top of the stone, very rudely cut, are the figures of a man on horseback and of warriors or conquered enemies in front of him. The inscription consists of twenty-four lines of about forty-two letters each; it is in good order, but the letters are of a bad and somewhat modern type and difficult to read. The inscription is dated Śālī-vāhanaśaka 1474 (A. D. 1552-3), being the

Rost's edition of Prof. H. H. Wilson's works, Śāyanāchārya describes himself as "the prime minister of Saṅgama, the son of Kampa, monarch of the eastern, southern, and western oceans; the son of Māyasa; and the uterine brother of Mādhava."

|| The name of Kirttivarṇadēva occurs in Sir W. Elliot's Kadamba genealogy, but anterior by three intervening steps to Śaka 956. Perhaps this Kirttivarṇadēva is the same as the Kirttidēva of No. 1 above.

¶ 'Śālī-vāharēndrakauja',—this title is also applied to Harikēśaridēva in No. 1 of the Baṅkāpūr inscriptions.

Paridhāvi *sahavatsara*, while the valorous king Sadāśivadēvaraya* was ruling at his capital of Vidyānagari.†

No. 6.—The stone-tablet containing this inscription stands up against the same wall. There are no emblems at the top of the stone. This inscription, again, is in good order, but the letters, as before, are not of a good type; it consists of thirty-one lines of about fifty letters each. With the exception that it belongs to the time of Sadāśivadēvamahārāya, I could not ascertain the date and contents of this inscription.

No. 7.—The stone-tablet containing this inscription stands against the E. wall of the enclosure of the temple. The emblems at the top of the stone are a *lūga* with the sun above it and the figure of Basava with the moon above it. The inscription consists of twenty-two lines of about twenty-three letters each. The letters of this, again, are of a bad type and are also very much defaced, and with the limited time at my disposal I could not make out the contents.

No. 8.—The stone-tablet containing this inscription stands up against the wall as the preceding. The emblems at the top of the stone are the same as those of the preceding. There are traces of about eighteen lines, but hardly a letter is distinctly visible from beginning to end.

In one of the smaller shrines, outside the central temple but in the same courtyard, there is a handsomely carved stone 'Mañcha', cot, bedstead, or litter, on which the image of the god is carried about the town on the occasion of festivals. The following inscription on the litter is published at page 277 of the *Canarese School-Paper* for March 1873 by Śrīnivāsa Rāmchandra Baṅkūpūr, Master of the Vernacular School at Badangōḍ in the North Canara District:—

श्रीवर्षे विभवे ऋतौ च श्रा(शि)शिरे माघाख्यमासे सिधे

पक्षे नाच्छिवरात्रौम्यदिवसे सेंदारपुष्पामृता ।

पर्यंको इममवर्षे(?) वसंतकुतुका(?) आस्थानके मंद(उ)पे
वत्त(तः) श्रीमधुकेशराय रुचिरः श्रीमन्मयतीपुरे ॥

With the corrections that I have suggested, the translation is:—"In the year Vibhava, in the dewy season‡, in the month of Māgha, in

the bright fortnight, on Wednesday the day of the Śivarātri, this handsome litter of stone, intended for the festival of spring, was given to (the god) Śrī-Madhukēśvara by king Raghu of Sōdā, at the prosperous city of Jayantipura, in the pavilion used as a hall of audience."

The litter was shown to me when I was at Banawāsi, but the inscription was not pointed out to me nor did it attract my attention independently; I do not know exactly whereabouts on the litter it is. There is said to be another sacred litter or bedstead somewhere in the Fort, similar to the one mentioned above, but without a roof and destitute of any elaborate carvings.

The original of the inscription is, I presume, in the Kāyastha characters. The publisher of it in the *Canarese School-Paper* interprets the first word numerically as giving, by inverting according to rule the order of the letters, the date 641. The system according to which words meaning 'earth' or 'sky' are used to denote 'one', words meaning 'arrow' to denote 'five', words meaning 'sun' to denote 'twelve', &c., is well-known. There is given, at page 22 of Brown's *Carnatic Chronology*, another system called 'Katapayādi', according to which each consonant of the Sanskrit alphabet has a numerical power; the table is as follows:—

1.	क	ट	प	य
2.	ख	ड	फ	र
3.	ग	ड	ब	ल
4.	घ	ड	भ	व
5.	ङ	ण	म	श
6.	च	त	—	ष
7.	छ	थ	—	स
8.	ज	द	—	ह
9.	झ	ध	—	ळ
0.	ञ	न	—	—

In both systems the unit is named first, then the ten, and so on, and the figures have accordingly to be reversed in reading off the date§. Such a word as 'Śrīśaraśē' of the text must be

* This king is not mentioned in the list of the kings of Vijayanagara given at page 281 of Vol. II. of Thomas' ed. of Prinsep's *Antiquities*. But his name occurs in other inscriptions.—e.g., Major Dixon's No. 17, from Harihara, dated Śaka 1476 or 1477, *Āzanda sahvatsara*; and id.,

No. 24, or Mr. Hope's No. 38, s., from Harihara, dated Śaka 1488, *Durmati sahvatsara*.

† A corruption of Vijayanagara.

‡ The two months Māgha and Phālguna, from about the middle of January to the middle of March.

§ "Āṅkandā vāmatō patīḥ."

explained according to the Katapayādi system, if it is to be explained numerically at all. And it is possible to extract from it the date 645, not 641 as given in the Canarese *School-Paper*; but there is an objection to this, viz., that the first and last letters of the word are compound letters and we should have to reject in each instance the letter 'r' as superfluous, though it has a numerical power according to the table. Moreover, we have still nothing to indicate the initial date from which the date of the inscription is to be calculated; Vikramāditya-samvat 645 and Śaka 645 do not work out as the Vibhava samvatsara or anything near it; nor does Śaka 1642, which may be arrived at by calculating the date from the reestablishment of the Śaka era by the Chālukya king Vikramāditya-Pṛthivīdēva at the commencement of his reign in the year 998 of the original Śaka era.

The whole style of the inscription is against its being of any considerable age. 'Sōdā,' in the second line of the verse, is perhaps a mistake on the part of the copyist for 'Sōndā'; at any rate the modern 'Sundā' or 'Sōndā', the ancient 'Sudhā' or 'Sudhāpura', in North Canara, is evidently meant. And the king Raghū alluded to is as undoubtedly the Raghunātha-Nāyaka who governed Sudhāpura under the sovereign of Vijayanagara* from Śaka 1541 to 1561. The Vibhava samvatsara occurred in his time,

viz., in Śaka 1550 (A.D. 1628-9), and this accordingly is the date of the inscription.

NO. II.

This, again, is a Kādamba inscription from Balagāṁve. I have edited it from Plate No. 69 of Major Dixon's work. The original, in the Old Canarese characters and language, is on a stone-tablet 5' 1" high by 1' 9½" broad. The emblems at the top of the stone are:—In the centre, some representation that I cannot clearly make out in the photograph; on its right, a seated figure, apparently Jain, with the moon above it; and on its left, a cow and calf with the sun above them.

The inscription records the grant, in the Śaka year 997 (A.D. 1075-6), being the Rākshasa samvatsara, of the village of Kundavige to the Vaishṇava temple of the god Nārasimhadēva of Balligāve. The grant was made by the Kādamba Gaṅgapemmanadi-Bhuvanaikavira-Udayādityadēva, whose place in the genealogy I cannot at present determine, with the sanction of his sovereign the Chālukya king Sōmēśvara-dēva II.

It is to be noticed that Gaṅgapemmanadi-Bhuvanaikavira-Udayādityadēva, though subordinate to the Chālukya king, does not style himself a Chieftain or Great Chieftain and assumes some of the titles of a paramount sovereign.

Transcription.

- [1] ನಾರಸಿಂಹವರ್ಧನಃ ಕೃತ್ವಾ ಸರ್ವಲೋಕಭಯಂಕರಂ(ರಂ) ಹಿರಣ್ಯಕಪಿಧಂ ಜಘ್ನೇ
- [2] ಪಶ್ಯಂತಿ ಸಿಂಹಾತ್ಮನೇ ನಮಃ • ಶ್ರೀಮಹಾಕುಕ್ಕುಟೇಶ್ವರನಪುರುಷಂ ಶೈಲವಂ
- [3] ತಿಬ್ರ(ವ್ರ)ತೇಜೋಧಾಮಂ ಸತ್ಯಾತ್ರಯಂ ವಿಕ್ರಮಗುಣನಿಲಯಂ ವಿಕ್ರಮಾದಿ-
- [4] ಕೃಷ್ಣಶ್ಯುದ್ರಾಮಂ ಸನ್ದಯ್ಯುಣಂ ಸಾಹಸನಿಧಿ ಜಯಸಿಂಹಂ ಭೂಪಕೃಲಕ್ಷ್ಮೀ-
- [5] ಧಾಮಂ ಶ್ರೈಲೋಕೈಶ್ಚಮುಖಂ ನೆಗರೆ ನೆಗಟ್ಟದೀ ಪ್ರಾಜ್ಯಾಚಾರ್ಯಕೃರಾಜ್ಯಂ • ತನ್ನಿ(ನೃಪ)ಪ-
- [6] ನನ್ದನಂ ಭುವನವನ್ದ್ಯಸುಣಂ ಭುವನಯ್ಯ(ಃ ನೈಕ)ಮಲ್ಲದೇವನ್ನರಸಾಧಾರಾಜ್ಯರಮಣೇ-
- [7] ರಮಣೀಯಪಾದ್ಧ್ಯೋ(ಧ್ಯೋ)ಭೂದೇಣಂ ಪನ್ನಗರಾಜಭೂಪೇಣಪದಾಪ್ತಾ ಪರಾಗಮಿ-
- [8] ತ್ರಕೇಶವರಂ ಶ್ರೀನೃಪತೇಶ್ವರೀಂದ್ರೀಂದ್ರಸುಧಾರ್ಥವೇಶ್ವರವಿಕ್ರಮವಿಜೃಂಭಂ • ಸ್ವಸ್ತಿ ಸ-
- [9] ಮಸ್ತಭವನಾತ್ರಯ ಶ್ರೀಪೃಥ್ವೀವಲ್ಲಭ ಮಹಾರಾಜಾಧಿರಾಜ ಪರಮೇಶ್ವರ ಪ-
- [10] ರಮಭಟ್ಟಾರಕಂ ಸತ್ಯಾತ್ರಯಕುಲಕೀರ್ತಕಂ ಚಾರುಕೃಷ್ಣಭರಣಂ ಶ್ರೀಧುದ್ಧವನಯ್ಯ(ಃ ನೈಕ)-
- [11] ಮಲ್ಲದೇವರ ವಿಜೇ(ಜ)ಯಾರಾಜ್ಯಮುಕ್ತಲೋತ್ತರಾಭಿವೃದ್ಧಿ(ದ್ವಿ)ಪ್ರವರ್ಧ(ಧ್ವ)ಮಾನಮಾಚಂಪ್ರಾಕೃ-
- [12] ತಾರಂ ಸುತುಮಿರೇ • ವೃತ್ತ • ಲಪ್ತದ್ವೀ(ವೀ)ಶ್ವರವಿವಾದಂಕರಹಸೇವಾತತ್ಪರಂ ವಿ-
- [13] ಕ್ರಮಾಪೋಪಶ್ರೀದ್ಧ ಏನಾಹಿತಪ್ರಕರನಸ್ಯಕ್ಷೇಣವಿವಾಂಶೈಶ್ಚಶ್ರೀಧಿದಾಂ-

- [14] ಬುರುಹಂ ವಿರೋಧಿಸ್ತಪದೂದಾರೋಪಿತಾಪ್ತ ಪ್ರಭಾವೋದೇತಂ ಭುವನಯ್ಯ(ನೈಕ)ವೀರ-
 [15] ನೇದಿಂ ಶ್ರೀಗಂಗದತ್ತಾಯುಧಂ * ಕನ್ನ * ಶ್ರೀಮಹಿಮಾನ್ಯಾ ವನವಿಕ್ರಾಂತ ಮರಣ-
 [16] ಕ್ರೇತನಾತ್ಯ ಭೂಜಬಲವಿಜಯೋದ್ಧಾ ಮಂ ಪ್ರಹೃತ್ಯ ಶ್ರೀಮಾಮನಿ ರಾಜಾಧಿ-
 [17] ರಾಜನುರೇ(ದ)ಯಾದಿತ್ಯ * ಸ್ವಸ್ತಿ ಸಮಸ್ತಭುವನಸ್ತು ಪ್ರಹೃತ್ಯ ಶ್ರೀವಿಜಯ-
 [18] ಯ ಶ್ರೀಪ್ರಧ್ವಜವಲ್ಲಿಭ ಮಹಾರಾಜಾ* ಧೀಮ ಪರಮೀಶ್ವರಂ ಕೋ(ಶೋ)ಲಾಕೃತಮ(ವ)ಶೇ-
 [19] ಶ್ವರಂ ನನ್ನ ಗಿರಾಳಂ ಮದಕಜೇನ್ದ್ರ ಲಾಂಛನಂ ಸೋಮೇಶ್ವರಬ್ಧಿವರಪ್ರಸಾ-
 [20] ದಂ ಸಂಗತುಸುಮಾಯುಧಂ ನನ್ನಿಯಗಂಗಂ ಜಯದುತ್ತರಂಗಂ ಸಕಲಜನಜನ್ತ-
 [21] ಮನಿ ಮನ್ಯಾಳಕಮಕುಟಕೂಡಾಮನಿ ಶ್ರೀಮದ್ಗಂಗಪೆಮ್ಮಾ ನದಿಭುವ-
 [22] ನಯ್ಯ(ನೈಕ)ವೀರನುರೇ(ದ)ಯಾದಿತ್ಯದೇವಂ ಏನವಶೆವನ್ನಿಚ್ಛಾಸಿರಂ ಸಾಸ್ತಳೇನಾ-
 [23] ಸಿರಮುಮಂ ಮನ್ಯಾಳಕಸೇರಮುಂ ಪದಿನೇಟಗ್ರಹಾರಮುಮಂ ದುಷ್ಟನಿಗ್ರ-
 [24] ಹವಿಶೆವ್ಯಪ್ರತಿಪಾಳನದಿನಾಳುತ್ತುಂ ಪ್ರಹೃತ್ಯವಾಸಿಗಲಪ್ಪ ಚೇರಚೋ-
 [25] ಲಪಾನ್ಯಾಪಲ್ಲವಪ್ರಭೃತಿಗಲನವಾಟನ್ನ ಕಪ್ಪಮಂ ಕೋಣ್ಯ ಚತುರ್ವ್ಯಾ-
 [26] ದ್ವೀ(ದ್ವೀ)ಪರ್ಯಾಂತಂ ನೆಲನಂ ನಿಮಿಶ್ಚ ವಿಜೇ(ಜಿ)ಗೀಮಪ್ರತಿಪದಪ್ಪ ಕೆಯ್ಯ ಸುಖಸಂತಾಪ-
 [27] ವಿನೋದದಿಂ ರಾಜಧಾನಿ ಬಲ್ಲಗಾವೇಶಮ್ಭಾ ಧರ್ಮಬುದ್ಧಿ(ದ್ವಿ)ಯಂ ನಿಜಸಾ-
 [28] ವಿ ಶ್ರೀಮದ್ಭುವನಯ್ಯ(ನೈಕ)ಮಲ್ಲದೇವಗ್ಗೇ ಬಿನ್ನಪಂಗಿಯ್ಯ ಪರಮೀಶ್ವರದತ್ತಿ
 [29] ಮಾತಿ ರಾಜಧಾನಿ ಬಲ್ಲಗಾವೇಶ ಮೀಗಲಪ್ಪದೇವಿಯ ಮೀಗಲಾ ಶ್ರೀಮನ್ಮಾರ-
 [30] ಸಿಂಹದೇವರ ದೇಗುಲದ ಪೇನಕ್ಕಂ ದೇವಜಾಣಿಗಂ ಸ(ಕ)ಕವರ್ಧ ನೂನಿಯ
 [31] ರಾತ್ಯನಸಂನತರದ ಪುಯ್ಯ ಕುಡ್ಡ(ದ) ೧ ಸೋಮವಾರದನ್ನಿ ನುತ್ರರಾಯಣ-
 [32] ಸಂಕ್ರಾಂತಿಪರ್ವ(ಪರ್ವ)ನಿಮಿತ್ತದಿನಲ್ಲಿಯ ಮುಖ್ಯರಪ್ಪ ಶ್ರೀಮತಾನ್ಯಾ ನನ್ನಭ-
 [33] ಟ್ಪುರಕರ ಕಾಲಾ ಕಟ್ಟೆ(ಕಟ್ಟೆ) ಧಾರಾತರ್ವಕಂ ಸರ್ಪ(ಪರ್ವ)ಸಮಸ್ತವಾಸಿ ಬಿಟ್ಟ ಏನವನಾ-
 [34] ದ ಕಂಜಣಾ ಮುಗುನ್ದ ಪತ್ತೆವರೂ ಬಳಯ ಬಾಡ ಕುನ್ದವಿಗೆ ೧ [II] ಈ ಧರ್ಮಮಾ-
 [35] ಪನೋಬ್ಬಂ ಪ್ರತಿಪಾಳನಿದಂ ಗಯಿವೊಳ್ಗೆಯೊಳ್ಳ ಕುರುಕ್ನೇಶ್ವರೋಳ್ಳ ವಾರಾಣ-
 [36] ನಿಯೊಳ್ಳ ಪ್ರಪಾಣಿಯೊಳ್ಳಾನಿರ ಕವಿತಿಯ ಕೋನುಂ ಕೊಳಗುಮಂ ಪಂಜ-
 [37] ರತ್ಯಂಗಂ ಕಟ್ಟಿಸಿ ಪೀದಪಾರಗರಪ್ಪ ಬ್ರಾಹ್ಮಸೋ(ಣ)ಗ್ಗೇ ಕೊಟ್ಟ ಪುಣ್ಯಮನೆ-
 [38] ಯ್ಯುಗುಂ [II] ನ ವಿಧಂ ವಿಷಮಿಕ್ಕುಮಾದೇ(ಮದ್ದೇ)ವಸ್ವಂ ವಿಷಮುಜ್ಯೋ ವಿಷಮಿಕಾಕಿನಂ
 [39] ಹನ್ನಿ ದೇವಸ್ವಂ ಕೃತಪಾತ್ರಿಕಂ ||

Translation.

Reverence to him, the lion-hearted, who, having assumed the form that belonged to him in his incarnation as the Man-lion, slew Hiranyaka-
 śipu† who was the cause of fear to all mankind!

The extensive sway of the Chālukyas was

* This letter, —*ಜ*,—was at first omitted in the original and afterwards inserted below its place in the line.

† Hiranyakaśipu, the king of the Daityas or demons, persecuted his son Prahlāda for his devotion to Vishnu. At last Vishnu, to protect his worshipper, issued in a form which was partly that of a lion and partly that of a man from a pillar in the hall in which the king and his attendants were seated, tore Hiranyakaśipu to pieces, and made Prahlāda king of the Daityas in his stead.

‡ According to Sir W. Elliot's genealogy Satyāśraya, —not the first of the Chālukyas who acquired that name,—was the son of Tailapa; Vikramāditya, the son of Satyāśraya; Ayyana, the younger brother of Vikramāditya; Jayasimha, the younger brother of Vikramāditya; Trailō-

glorious in the glory of Tailapa of unequalled strength, who was the prosperous universal emperor of the Chālukyas,—of Satyāśraya†, who was the abode of fierce brilliance,—of Vikramāditya, who was the receptacle of the quality of heroism,—of Ayyana‡, who was self-willed and

kyamalla, the son of Jayasimha; and Bhuvanaikamalla, the eldest son of Trailōkyamalla.

§ Having never met in any other inscription with this name, I follow Sir W. Elliot and divide the 'sadayyana' of the text into 'sada ayyana'. 'Sada' must then be taken as the past relative participle of 'seda', to be current (of money); to pass (of time); to be valid, fit, proper; to be paid or liquidated; to die; to be extended; e.g. 'sada hana', money received, 'sadanindarolāla', not among the dead nor among the living. But 'sada' gives no satisfactory meaning in the present passage unless it is taken as simply equivalent to 'appa' or 'dāda', who became, who was; and it is possible that the name may be Sadayayana instead of simply Ayyana. The name does not occur at all in Mr. Wathen's list of the Chālukyas as given in Thomas' edition of Prinsep's *Antiquities*.

haughty,—of the impetuous Jayasimha,—and of Trailōkyamalla, who was the abiding-place of the goddess of fortune in the form of the circle of the earth. The son of that king was Bhuvanaikamalla,* whose good qualities were worthy to be praised in the world,—who was the inestimable ornament of those who were the lovers of the lovely woman Kingly Sway,—whose chaplet of flowers on his head was (made) pure by the pollen of the lotuses which are the feet of him† who is decorated with the king of serpents (and before which he bowed in worship),—and who made the whole world radiantly white with the upturned rays of his glory.

Hail! While the victorious reign of the prosperous Bhuvanaikamalladēva,—the asylum of the universe, the favourite of the world, the supreme king of great kings, the supreme lord, the most venerable, the glory of the family of Satyāsraya, the ornament of the Chālukyas,—was flourishing with perpetual increase so as to endure as long as the moon and sun and stars might last:—

He, who was intent upon doing service (as if he were a bee) to the lotuses which were the feet of that lord of the earth‡, was resplendent,—namely Bhuvanaikavira, who had numbers of enemies by reason of the luxuriant growth of the self-conceit of valour,—who had the lotuses which were his feet worshipped by other kings,—who was imbued with majesty resulting from his commands which were borne on the top-knots of other kings§,—and who was a very Chakrīyudha|| of a Śrī-Gaṅga.

A very ocean of the magnitude of good fortune; a very Chakrēśa¶ towards all Brāh-

mans; unrestrained in respect of the victories of the strength of his own arm; the best of Brahmakshatras*; the supreme king of kings;—such was Udayāditya.

Hail! While the fortunate Gaṅgapemmanadi-Bhuvanaikavira-Udayādityadēva,—he who belonged to the brave lineage of Brahmakshatras which is praised over the whole world; the favourite of the world; the supreme king of great kings; the supreme lord; the excellent lord of the city of Kōlālapura; the lord of Nandagiri; he who had for his crest an infuriated royal elephant; he who acquired the excellent favour of (the god) Sōmēśvara; he who was a very Kusumāyudha† in respect of his affection; Nanniyagaṅga‡; he who was the portal of victory§; he who granted the desires of all mankind; he who was the crest-jewel of the diadems of chieftains,—punishing the wicked and protecting the good, was governing the Banavase Twelve-thousand, the Sāntalige|| Thousand, the Maṇḍali Thousand, and the Eighteen Agrahāras; and while,—having ruined the kings of Chēra, Chōla, Pāndya, and Pallava, and others who dwelt on his frontiers, and having levied tribute (from them), and having extended his territories up to the limits of the four oceans, and having pursued the career of one who is desirous of conquest,—he was abiding at his capital of Baḷligāve with the recreation of pleasing conversations¶;—having from a religious impulse preferred his request to his master the prosperous Bhuvanaikamalladēva*, and having made an offering to (the god) Paramēśvara,†—on the occasion of the festival of the sun's commencing his progress to the north

* Sōmēśvaradēva II, Śāln 991 ? to 998; Sir W. Elliot.

† Vishnu, whose couch is the serpent Śēsha.

‡ The phrase in the text corresponds to *śatpādapad-vaṣṭajit*, he who subsisted (as if he were a bee) on the lotuses which were his feet, which is the term usually employed to denote the relations of a subordinate chieftain with the supreme sovereign.

§ The allusion is to the oriental custom of placing written commands on the forehead as a token of submission and obedience.

|| i.e., 'a most excellent Śrī-Gaṅga'; 'chakrīyudha', he who is armed with the discus, being an epithet of Vishnu, and the word 'Vishnu', or more commonly 'Nārāyaṇa', being used in the sense of excellent, preeminent, unique. Or 'Śrīgaṅgachakrīyudha' may mean he who was armed with the discus of Śrī-Gaṅga; or again,—a possible analysis being 'śrīgaṅga-chakrīyudha', he who was a very Vishnu in a bodily form for (his wife) the goddess of fortune. But, as it is seen below that Gaṅga was one of Bhuvanaikavira's names probably the meaning that I have given in the text is the one really intended.

¶ The lord of the discus,—Vishnu; perhaps the allusion is to the Buddha-vatāra, when Vishnu became incarnate as a sage to reform the religion of the Brāhmins.

* Members of a family of both Brāhman and Kshatriya origin, i.e., of mixed descent.

† 'The flower-armed',—Kūśmadēva, the god of love; his bow is made of flowers, the string of it is a row of bees, and his five arrows are each tipped with a flower which exercises a particular influence over one or other of the senses.

‡ Meaning not apparent; 'nanniyaga' may be the genitive of the Old Canarise 'nanna', love, truth. This and the epithet 'jayaduttaragaṅga' are also applied to Gaṅgapemmanadi-Vikramādityadēva in No. 1 of the Baḷhāpīr inscriptions.

§ 'Jayaduttaragaṅga',—the analysis seems to be 'jayade uttaragaṅga'.

|| In line 24 of No. 72 of Major Dixon's work the form of this name is Sāntalī; in other passages it occurs in its present form.

¶ 'Sukhasaṅkathāvināśadīn'; occasionally 'satkāthā' is written for 'saṅkathā'. This phrase is of perpetual occurrence; its exact purport is not clear, but it denotes in some way one of the attributes of sovereignty.

* The Chālukya king.

† 'The supreme lord',—an epithet of Vishnu, Indra, Jina, or, most frequently, Śiva.

on Monday the first day of the bright fortnight of the month Pushya of the Rākshasa *saṁvatsara* which was the year of the Śaka 997, he laved the feet of the holy Pārmanandabhāṭṭāraka, who was the chief (saint) of that place, and set apart,—with oblations of water and as a grant to be respected by all,—for the decoration of the temple of the god the holy Nārasimhadēva, who was located above the bank of the tank called Pērgaṭṭa* of the capital of Balligāve, and for the worship of the god,—the one (town) of Kundavige, a town which was near to† the Magund Twelve

which was a *kampapa*‡ of the Banavase District.

Whosoever preserves this act of piety shall obtain as much religious merit as if he were to cause the horns and hoofs of a thousand tawny-coloured cows to be fashioned out of the five jewels§ at Gaye, or Gāṅge, or Kurnkshētra, or Vīraṇāsi, or Prayāge, and were to give them to Brāhmanas thoroughly well versed in the Vēdas! They say that poison is not poison, but the property of a god is called poison; for, poison slays only one, but the property of a god, (if confiscated), destroys one's children and their posterity.

SEVEN LINGĀYTA LEGENDS.

BY Rev. P. KITTEL, MERKARA.

The following legends, of which a literal translation is given, are taken from the *Amṛtavarasikāmaṇi*, a popular Liṅgāyta composition in Kannaḍa (Canarese). It was finished on a Monday (*sonavāra*) which was the fifth lunar day (*pañchamī*) of the dark lunar fortnight (*bakula*) of the sixth lunar month (*bāḥḍrapada*) of the sarvadhāri year. One of our copies dates from 1844 A.D. Its contents, however, as the author states, are based on a work by the Liṅgāyta poet Rāghava, who lived about 1300 A.D., and was the nephew and pupil of the guru and poet Hari, called also Hari Hara and Hari Deva. At least three of the legends are alluded to in the 54th chapter of the Kannaḍa *Basava Purāṇa* of 1369 A.D., the author of which knew the celebrated Rāghava and his uncle. The allusions are contained in the following sentences:—"Pārvatīśvara (as Virabhadra) took the form of Śarabha, destroyed the Naraḥari (Narasimha), and put on the skin-cloth." (v. 42; No. 5.) "When that Sanātanta (Sanatkumāra) became proud in the presence of Śrī Sadāśiva, did he not become a camel?" (No. 1.) "When the master Vyāsa, from rudeness, said: 'Even Vāsudeva is god!' and raised his hand, did not

Nandikēśa become angry, and squeeze and break his arms?" (v. 49; conf. 57, 24; No. 6.) Besides, the author of the *Purāṇa* puts these words into the mouth of the Liṅgāyta Sōḍḍala Bāchīa-rasa (Bāchī rāja, Bāchī ayya), a contemporary of Basava at Kalyāṇa in the Nizām's country who was the founder of the Liṅgāyta sect; Bāchī at the time is represented as being angry with king Bijjala for his setting up an image of Govinda. The author therefore refers the existence of the legends to the end of the 12th century A.D. Captain Mackenzie (vol. II. page 49 of this journal) says that the story brought forward by him concerning Vyāsa's arm is from the *Skanda Purāṇa*; to a Sanskrit version of the story the śloka interwoven with the present Kannaḍa version also point. Parthér, the Vaishṇava dāsa song quoted in vol. II. p. 311 of this journal (conf. vol. II. p. 133), seems to indicate that *Vyāsa's arm* and *Nandi's staff* were already in existence in Rāmānuja's time, about 1127 A.D.

So the legends give us some insight into the time when the Vira Śaivas and Vira Vaishṇavas in the south were fighting with each other for supremacy, using all sorts of weapons; that about the *janivāra* (janvi) is

* 'The tank of the large flight of steps or ghāt',—'gaṭṭa' being a Tadbhava corruption of 'gāṭṭa'.

† 'Baṭṭa'.

‡ I have shown that 'kampapa' is a convertible term with 'ōḍḍa' in its second meaning of a circle of towns constituting an administrative post; see Note 37 to No. VII of the *Rājya* inscriptions previously referred to. 'ōḍḍa', a Tadbhava corruption of the Sanskrit 'vāḍa', enclosure of a town or village, fence, wall, hedge, &c., occurs here in its

first meaning of a town; it occurs frequently as 'ōḍḍ' as the termination of the modern names of villages. 'Kampapa' is probably another form of the Canarese 'kavapa' *kampā*, a cluster, heap, assemblage, multitude. In No. 1 of the Baṅkīpur inscriptions this word is written 'kampapa', the only instance in which I have yet met with it in that form.

§ Gold, the diamond, the emerald, the ruby, and the pearl; or, gold, silver, coral, the pearl, and the Rāgaṭṭa.

interesting in so far as it states the vulgar tradition of how the Pañchālas came to wear it.*

The legends requires the reader to look upon Śiva as the Parabrahma, and upon his phase in the Trimūrti as preëminent. They have not been fabricated by the old Smārtas, or by the followers of Hari Hara, i.e. such as believe that Hari and Hara are one; but by the (Śuddha or)† Vira Śaivas, namely, Liṅgāyatas. The abovementioned Sōḍḍaḷa Bāchi rāja is introduced in the same chapter of the *Basava Purāṇa* as saying: "Did not Hara (i.e. the remover), surging with wrath, make a removal (*apa-haraṇa*) of the name Hari Hara?" (v. 45.) "Even Abhava (Śiva) is the donor of important gifts! Could there be any such among the (other) donor-lords as would give what one wishes? Brahmā, Viṣṇu, Jina and the other masters, to whom have they ever given everlasting bliss?" (v. 66.) "Words that say: 'Viṣṇu is all that Śiva is (*yathā-Śiva-maya*)!', bad speeches that say: 'The Trimūrti is the very Śiva!', wicked devices that say: 'The Aṣṭamūrti‡ are the very Śiva!', and those who say: '(Other) men are equal to Śiva's devotees!' cannot be heard (by one) without committing an excessive crime."

Hari Hara, Hari Īśvara, or Hari Deva, if used as a name by Liṅgāyatas (and other Vira Śaivas), denotes "Śiva who is the master of Hari." The author of the Kannaḍa *Basava Purāṇa*, no doubt, was an opponent of the old Smārtas, and probably a personal antagonist of Mādhavāchārya Śāyaṇa, whose patrons were the kings Harihara and Bukka of Viḍyanagara (Ānēgundi), and who was pontiff at Śrīṅgeri from 1331 to 1386 A.D.§

Conclusion of Chapter IX.

"King of gurus, Gautama, lord of the ṛishis! By you I have become extremely pure," said he (king Gambhira of Ratnagiri), bowed down at his feet, joined (and raised) his hands (to his forehead, in supplication), praised him till his mouth was tired, and made another good

request, saying: "Why did the son of king Mahandāta of Karaḍikallu (i.e. bear-stone) receive the name of Hara's *Bilva* tree? Why did the name *janivāra* come into existence on earth? Tell me!" The muni said: "Lord of the land, chief of kings! Out of love I shall let thee know this. Hear!" (When Satyaśivayogi thus related how Gautama once instructed Gambhira, the ruler of the land (Uttamottama rāja of Kāntāvati-pura) joined his hands, and said (to his guru): "O Satyaśivayogi, master of the munis! I shall be a fortunate man, my various sins will be burnt up; O guru, I shall listen with joy if you bestow the favour (of telling me the stories)." (He replied): "By the grace of the Virūpāksha liṅga of Hampē that is very great on earth|| I shall tell them."

Chapter X.

When Gambhira inquired about the root of the two, viz. of the manner in which king Billama of Karaḍikallū-pura was born on earth, and of the *janivāra*, Gautama, from love, told him (the following, beginning with praise): "When at the deluge the earth was covered with clouds, and together with the Trimūrti was continually sinking and rising like a flock of birds, and, without support, cried from anxiety, the beautiful Basava (Vṛishabha) was kind enough to take it up with his tail, O my master, Hampē's Virūpāksha!"

1. King Billama.

Hear, ruler of the land, Uttamottama rāja! I shall relate so that thou mayest know all that Parabrahma's¶ guru (Gautama) communicated to his disciple. On the tableland of Rajatagiri (silver mountain*) there grew in a lovely way three *Bilva* trees fit for Kūpāladhara (the skull-bearer, i.e. Śiva): two trees with two leaves; and opposite to the two of this description there was a *Bilva* tree with one leaf.† In the shade of the two there were two ascetics: Durvāsa, an incarnation of Hara, and Kauṇḍinya muni. Another lord of the munis, Devaḷa,

* Conf. Ind. Ant. vol. II. p. 214.

† Though the Liṅgāyatas are Śuddha Śaivas, these existed before them. Already in the years 1229-30 A.D. we find a Liṅgāyata, who was a Śuddha-Śaiva-mūṅgi; *Jour. Bomb. Br. R. As. Soc.* 1873-74, No. xxix. p. 285.

‡ Aṣṭamūrti is one of the names of Śiva; the eight bodies by which he is supposed to have manifested himself are: earth, water, fire, wind, air, sun, moon, and soul. Conf. the *urvi-gagana-indu-ima-anala-marut-salila-ātman-varāḥjamūnti* in the beginning of the *Śiṣya* of 1229-30

A.D. of p. 278 of the same number of the *Jour. Bomb. Br. R. As. Soc.*

§ See Dr. Burnell's *Veṅka Brāhmaṇa*, pp. xiv. xv.

|| Hampē when Sanskritized is Pa m p ā. It is the once celebrated place on the Tūṅgabhadra near Viḍyasaṅga.

¶ Here Parabrahma is Śiva.

* Probably the Himālaya, conf. Kaṭṭha.

† The meaning of this, I think, can only be that the leaves of the first two trees consisted each of two parts, whereas the leaves of the other one were single.

was performing austerities in the shade of the tree with (leaves of) one leaf; he had a disciple. On a certain day, to make pūjā to the liṅga in his hand, he gave him the order: "Take (some) leaves* of the Bilva of one leaf, and bring them!" He went, and said (to himself): "I shall take;" but he could not reach them with his hand. Not daring to climb (the tree) lest he might sin, nor to go back (without the leaves), he looked round about, and, lo, there lay the skeleton of a camel. He trod and stood on it, took leaves, and brought and gave them to the guru. When he (Devala) came to know (the particulars), he said with wrath: "Didst thou dare to tread on bones and take down these leaves? Be born in the womb of low people (*hūlāya*)! Go!" Then Durvāsa and Kaṇḍīya muni, with great wrath, said to that lord of munis: "Dost thou not know? When Sanatkumāra was proud and provoked Śaṅkara, the father of many deities, he said: 'Become a camel!' When he (Sanatkumāra) asked: 'At what time (will) the deliverance from the curse (happen)?' he gave the order: 'When thou hast died at the completion of thy age, and the disciple of the great Devala, the lord of the munis, treads on thy bones, on thy backbones, and cuts off Bilva leaves of one leaf, thy curse shall cease.' Afterwards, when he (Sanatkumāra) was thus lying, by means of this man (thy disciple) he saw Śiva's feet (i.e. was redeemed). Seeing this, canst thou speak in such a manner?" Then he (Devala) became astonished, and said: "Let him nevertheless be born as a cowherd (*danapāla*)! Let him be called king of Karaḍikallāpura, and be conspicuous by the name of this (Bilva or Bilma) tree!" But they said: "King of the munis! As thou art his guru, be thou born, unhesitatingly teach him the whole road of knowledge, thereupon come with him, and enter thy hermitage!" He consented. Hear further, king! The lord of Karaḍikalpaṭṭana, Mahandāta rāya, wished for a son; but his wife had given birth only to girls. When she again became pregnant, the king grew angry, and said to his minister: "If now she gives birth to a female I will cut

her throat without fearing to commit the murder of a woman." He heard (the words) to his grief; and when she again gave birth to a female, he quickly took the child, walked through the town (*śra*), and inquired: "Has nowhere a male been born?" Finding none, he looked to a house in the outer street (where the low people use to live), and went (to it), when the disciple of Devala, the lord of the munis, had been born (therein). From compassion he entered, put this child there, took that male child with him, put it at her (the queen's) side, and brought and told the news (of a son having been born) to his master. With the words: "Is it truth or falsehood?" he (the king) went and saw; then he was immersed in the sea of joy, straightway gave all the gifts to the Brāhmaṇas, and distributed cart-loads of sugar. Thereafter he gave (the boy) the name Billama,† performed the ceremony of (giving) the name, and lived in happiness. When Billama had attained to manhood, Mahandāta, from love, had his marriage performed, fastened the royal insignia on him, and went to the abode of the enemy of Cupid (i.e. to Kailāsa); but his son ruled the kingdom in happiness, and behaved truthfully. Meanwhile Devala muni, his guru, was born in the world of mortals, was called "master of the (guru-) caste," came quickly (to Billama), uttered the *āgamas* of Śiva, gave him the *dikṣā*, and entered the cave of Hara, that of Kuṇi (i.e. hole) Someśvara. When the king, who had obtained excellent divine knowledge, lived in happiness, his minister Malaya did not bow his head (before him), and was distant towards him. The lord of the land observed it, had him called, and told him: "Have some Bilva leaves of one leaf brought, and give them to me for the liṅga pūjā!" He said: "Well!" called for the servants, and gave the order. They sought (for the leaves) till they became fatigued, came to the minister, joined their hands and told him. When he had heard (their tale), he was astonished, went to the ruler of the land, and begged (his advice). He gracefully listened, and spoke: "If I tell thee the place, wilt thou alone, with joy, go and bring (the leaves)?" To this he

* Here and further on the text has this noun in the singular using it for the plural, as is most frequently so in Kannada with regard to collectives.

† The proper meaning of Billama seems to be "he of the bilu (bow)," Billama being another form of Billava.

The toddy-drawers of the Tulu country are called Billavas, i.e. they of the bow. As Billava and Billa mean the same, it is natural to think that Sanskrit Billa and Dravidian Billas are identical, both denoting "a bowman."

replied: "Without delay, in half an hour, I shall bring," when he (the king) made him acquainted with the manner, and dismissed him. He quickly went to the place of that tree, but looking at it and finding he could not reach (the leaves), he said: "What shall I do?" and felt distressed. Looking this way and that way, he saw the skeleton lying there, and saying: "I, with joy, shall now tread on this and try," he approached it. When the two munis (Durvāsa and Kauṇḍinya) saw that, they said: "Oh, do not! when the disciple of Devala muni, who, sitting in the shade of this tree, was performing austerities, trod on this and cut off (some leaves), he, by the guru's curse, was born in the womb of low people (*lōlēya*), became king of Karaṇikalpaṭṭaṇa, has (now) a good report, and is conspicuous by the name of the tree. Devala muni said he would become the master of the guru-caste, point out Hara's road (to his disciple), make him pure, bring him (back), and as before, like us, live in the shade of this tree; then he went away, and has not yet returned. Do not tread on it! Go silently as thou hast come!" He joined his hands, quickly went (back) to the lord of the land, prostrated, and said: "O treasure of honour! you knew the alienation of my heart, and have cleansed me. I am attached to your feet." The king took his hand, and put him in a happy position, O Gambhīra!

2. The Janivāra.

Hear now the particulars of the *janivāra*, O best of kings! I shall dilate upon the particulars which the muni (Gautama) told to the king, so that thou mayest know them all. In the beginning Śiva built the glorious Kailāsa, Vaikuṇṭha, and Satyaloka for the Trimūrti, gave them to the three, called Viśvakarma, and said: "Measure the three (towns)!" "Wherewith shall I do so?" he asked. He (Śiva) took and gave him the *yajñopavīta* of Vāsugā (i.e. Vāsuki, the king of serpents); then he easily measured the three towns, not feeling fatigued measured also the fourteen worlds, came to Śiva's feet, and said: "So

many." He said: "How many? Tell me the amount!" "The top alone of the house of Kailāsa is 324, the rest I could not measure and left it; Vaikuṇṭha is 288, and Satyaloka just as many; all the beautiful fourteen worlds have also just as many," said he. Then he (Śiva) said: "Ho! Make measuring cords (*dhāra*) with care and put them on your necks; and if it meets with your wishes, let them be your sign!" They made them carefully, and put them on with joy. [Then follows an account of how first Īśvara or Hara dressed cotton, and in a certain manner prepared his cord; but as the description enters so much into details, it cannot well be understood without seeing the process actually performed. Thereupon the story proceeds to say:] On the first knot (*ganṭu*) Hara fastened that slip-knot, called it the *knot of Parabrahma*, and put it as a *yajñopavīta* on the neck of Rudra. Hari (in the beginning) span all just as Śiva had done, (but then took his own particular course, and after having put the final knot) called it the *knot of Viṣṇu*, put it as (his) *yajñopavīta* on his own neck, bowed down to Śiva's feet, and then stood with his hands joined. Except the knot of the left, Brahmā very quickly made all just as Hari had done, without delay called it the *knot of Brahmā*, put it as (his) *yajñopavīta* on his own neck, bowed to Mṛḍa (Śiva), and then stood with his hands joined. Viśvakarma made (his cord) according to the knot of Viṣṇu, joined left and right, made a slip-knot of a hand-twist, put Hari's knot into it, tightened it, called it the *knot of Viśvakarma*, put it as (his) *yajñopavīta* on his own neck, bowed to Hara, and then stood with his hands joined. Śiva looked at the four, and he, the lord of the world, spoke: "That no fight may arise between the members of your families (*saṁśāṅka*), make and use these (cords)! Who asks about the walk of the world? For the walk of the families (or castes, *kula*) has this *janivāra* come into existence.* Regarding family the Brāhmaṇa is Śrī Maheśvara; regarding family the Kṣatriya is Nārā-

* The relater, as it would appear, has considered the first part of the compound of *janivāra*, *janī*, to mean "birth," "caste," especially also as he uses a verb of the root *jan* to express "to come into existence." *Vāra* is a skein of thread; but the relater seems to give it the meaning of barrier. Thus, *janivāra*—that which keeps the castes within bounds. But the word is not connected with the root *jan*, as is shown by the Tēluga forms *jannī*,

janvīdī, *janvira*, *janvī*, *janvīya*. Both in Tēluga and Kannada *janva* is a tadbhava of *yajña*. In an old copy of a Kannada *śālo* on Halayudha's *Kosha* in my possession there is *janva-sira* (?) instead of *janivāra*, so that also in Kannada *janva*, and not *janī*, appears to have been the original form. *Janivāra*, therefore, would mean "sacred thread."

raja; regarding family the Komaṭiga* s Sarasijodbhava; and the Pañchāṭ† is Viśvakarma. On the earth all the Brahmas form the Rudra vaṁśa, all the kings the Hari vaṁśa, all the Vaiśyas the Naḥnōdhaba vaṁśa, and all the people of the Pañchāṭ the Viśvakarmavaṁśa. The *yajñopaveṭa* of Parabrahma's knot is for the Brāhmaṇa; the *yajñopaveṭa* of Hari's knot is for the Kshatriya; the *yajñopaveṭa* of Sarasijodbhava's knot is for the Vaiśya; the excellent (*parama*) *yajñopaveṭa* of Viśvakarma's knot is for the people of the Pañchāṭ. By the order of Para Śiva they looked to their different families (*vaṁśa*), and joyfully took care of them. If, in this respect, one enters that of the other, and people continue to pay regard to him who is spoiled as a family and has become an outcaste (*jāti-kṣaya*), offence will certainly be given. He who walks in the way of the family, and adores the deity of the family, obtains final liberation. To the *yajñopaveṭa* of the knot of the lord of many deities (i.e. of Śiva) the others are not equal; those who make them equal (to it) become great sinners, and go to a dreadful hell. Hear, O Gambhīra! The *yajñopaveṭa* of the knot of Parabrahma is quite equal in weight to the *Rudraśikhā*; repeating the excellent pañchākṣari (*namaḥ śivāya*) without uttering different words, and with excellent faith (*bhakti*), one has to prepare it and put it on; at that very moment all known and unknown sins will be burnt. He who undertakes a sacrifice (*yajña*) has to put on eighteen;‡ the other five. A grantha: *yajñopaveṭāṁśaḥ dvā dhāryaṁ śrautasamūrte cha karmaṇi |*
ṛitigamuttare yat tu vāstra-bhāve caturtha-
kaṇḥ ||
pañchamam pratidoshāṁ cha chhinnadoshaṁ na
vidyate |

* The Komaṭigas are merchants.

† The Pañchāṭ are the five classes of handicraftsmen: the carpenter, blacksmith, beazier, goldsmith, and stonecutter or mason.

‡ The purport of this translation, which follows the general rules of Kaṇvaḍa syntax, is not clear to me. It is perhaps required to translate: "He who undertakes a sacrifice and the other (varṇas), that are altogether eighteen, have to put on five." The ashvīdaśa varṇas are enumerated as follows: 1. Brāhmaṇa, 2. Kshatriya, 3. Vaiśya, 4. Śūdra, 5. Vira Śaiva, 6. Śāḍya (weavers), 7. Gōḷa (cowherds), 8. Kumbhāra (potters), 9. Pañchāṭ, 10. Azama (washermen), 11. Nāyida (barbers), 12. Mlecchaka (Musalmāns), 13. Beda or Kīrāta (hunters), 14. Tambūja (florists), 15. Bannagāra (dyers), 16. Jinaḡāra (painters, idol-makers, &c.), 17. Hālāya (low people, that serve, e.g. as

or "One has to put on two for vedic and canonical ceremonies; one has to put on another to the north of Kāśī; one has to put on another for raiment, and one for the removal of guilt; so there are five." The Brāhmaṇa who puts (*them*) on is the very Para Śiva; the sins of him who bows down to (*his*) feet are destroyed; he who declares this to be falsehood goes to hell. Thus said he (*Gautama*).

The king (Gambhīra) asked: "O guru, *Nandi's staff* (*kolu*), the *Māyīnartāpu*, the *Kīrtinukha*, the *arṇa* (*toḷu*) which are tied (*to the staff*), the *lata* (*kinnari*), &c., when did they come into existence? *Gautama* ṛishi, tell me!" He let Gambhīra know. When he (*Satyāśivayogi*) had told this, the king said: "Satyaśivayogi, image of Indudhara (Śiva), oblige thy child (by telling him the stories)!" He said: "By the favour of the husband of the moon-faced woman, of Hampē's Virūpākṣa liṅga, I shall tell."

Chapter XI.

Then Gambhīra said: "Nandi's staff (*dhvaj*), the *Māyīnartāpu*, the *Kīrtinukha*, the *arṇa* which are tied (*to the staff*), the *lata*, &c., when did they come into existence? O guru, tell me!" and joined his hands. The muni began (with the following praise): "When thou hadst become Śrī Brahmā for the creation of the three worlds, thou becamest Viṣṇu to preserve them, and becamest the grave Maheśvara to punish cruel beings, thou who art to the earth the Trimūrti, Hampē's Virūpākṣa!"

3. *Nandi's staff.*

Hear! I shall lay open before thee all that *Gautama* rāya told. Listen attentively, being comfortably seated! Hear, best of kings! I am going to tell thee the origin of *Nandi's staff*. The bad Rākṣasa, called Lokamaya, was on earth. He became very strong and proud, and gave much trouble to the Suras. Then

gardeners, horsekeepers, &c.), 18. Māḍiga (shoemakers, carriers, &c.). However, to imagine that all these 18 classes have to put on one of the five *janvīras* is preposterous. All of them *might* wear the *Līṅga*. About Śūdras Mr. Brown, in his *Tēṅgu Dictionary*, remarks: "Some Śūdras in the Gōḷāṁ district wear the thread (*janvī*), and are called Kāḷḡgas." "The Tambajavīḡgas, a class of beggars who worship Śiva and who beat a drum.....are generally Śūdras, but wear the sacred thread." Regarding the Southern Marāṭha Country it has been stated by the late Rev. Mr. Würth: "A portion of the weavers, about 200 years ago, separated from the Līṅḡya community and formed a new sect, which is called the Deḡḡya sect. They have abolished the wearing of the *Līṅga*, and assumed the holy thread. Their priests are of their own caste." Śūḡ-*pañchākṣa* is said to have divided the original four castes into eighteen subdivisions, and each of these again into four.

all the Suras came together, consulted and said : " Come, let us go to the prince of the Suras, and inform him ! " They went, joyfully bowed their heads, and told him : " King of the Suras, Indra ! Listen to our complaint, father ! Lokamaya, the wicked Rākshasa, has come, gives much trouble, and does not allow (us) to remain in our town. " When he heard that, he said : " Stand all up ! Bring the most beautiful Airāvata (my elephant) ! To day I will try his power ! " He rose in fierce wrath, mounted the elephant which had been brought and placed before him, without delay joined the immortals, went with them at a swift pace to the Rākshasa, and took up a position before him. The Rākshasa observing him, began to abuse (him) in an unrestrained way, so that the earth was split. When Devendra saw the huge mass coming, he fell with his posteriors turned upwards, rose, said : " Wherefore shall I mount the elephant (again) ? and wherefore the confusion ? Let us go where Brahmā is, and ask advice ! It is not safe (here). Rise, and proceed ! " and quickly came with them to Brahmā to inform him of all. When he had introduced them to him whose vehicle is Nāgari (Garuda), they joined their hands, and told him all at once. Having heard them, he mounted Garuda, went, and had a great fight with the Rākshasa; but he became wearied, said : " Bhālaksha (Śiva) will be able to do it; I am not ! " went where the feet of Śiva were, who is black like a dark-blue cloud, greeted him, and spoke. When the Ādi Mūrti heard it, he quickly mounted the Ādi Basava (Vṛishabha), went, and cut off the Rākshasa's head. At that very moment he (the Rākshasa) praised him. Then Śiva was pleased and said : " Ask a boon ! " He answered : " Śiva must make my body clean on earth ! " Then he was good enough to make a badge of honour of him. He took the backbone and made a staff (*kolu*) of it; he made a top-ornament (or cupola, *kūṣa*) of the head; and made a flag (or wing, *pakkē=paksha**) of the itehyskin. He uplifted the distinguishing sign (*mudrā*) of the imperishable Nandi on high, appointed it to be Nandi's staff (*Nandi kolu*),† and causing it to be carried

(lit., causing it to walk) before Nandi in the midst of the true devotees (*śaraṇa*) commenced returning.

4. *The Māyīmārtāpu.*

Then Māyī, the younger sister of that wicked person (Lokamaya), with excessive rigour, provoked him. Hara, in wrath, cut off her head. She joyfully praised him, saying : " O powerful Paramātmā ! " He, from compassion, was pleased, and said : " I will give thee a boon. Pray (for one) ! " " O god, make me like my elder brother ! " said she. He called her head *Māyīmārtāpu*,‡ caused it to be carried (lit., caused it to walk) to the left of Nandi's nice staff (*dhvaja*), and together with the fine host (*gana*) entered the palace of Kailāsa; and Hari Hara§ lived in happiness. On earth all the eminent faithful prepare the badges of honour of the two, and at Hara's festive processions display them in front.

5. *The Kīrtimukha and Sīmāhāsana.*

To the demon (*dāruja*) Hiraṇya Prah-lāda was born, and paid devotion to Hari. His father said : " Pay devotion to Hara ! " and gave him various instructions. When he (nevertheless) called upon Hari, he (Hari) heard it, in the form of Narasiṃha was born in a pillar, tore open the belly of Hiraṇya, took the entrails, decorated with his *vanamālā* lapped the blood, became excessively proud, and attacked the host of the immortals. They prayed. When Śaṅkara, who breaks the teeth of the proud, heard it, he boiled with excessive rage and said : " Come, master Śrī Virabhadra ! Go thou ! Nārāyaṇa is not my equal. Courageously go, and break the display of pride of him who has overstepped his boundary ! Thereafter return ! " He went in the form of Śarabha, seized the neck of Hari, and whirled (him) on high. He came to Hara's feet, and in falling down praised, saying : " Hara, Hara ! " Paramēśvara was pleased, and said : " I will give thee a boon. Ask ! " The wicked one said : " Take up my body ! " Then he made the *Kīrtimukha*|| of the head, and of the skin of Hari (or of the lion) which he had taken up, he made a seat (*āsana*). On earth it got the

* Another MS. reads *pāṭhakkā*.

† This is an ornamented pole with a figure of Basava on it, over which is the cupola.

‡ The translator has been unable at Madikeri (Mergara) to ascertain the meaning of *Māyī's martāpu* or *marutāpu*.

§ i.e. Hari's lord.

|| What this badge of honour for Virabhadra is, we are at present unable to say. We have seen a large painted figure of cloth hanging in front of a Śiva temple that was called a *Kīrtimukha*. [*Kīrtimukha* is also the name of the grinning face so frequently carried on string-courses, and elsewhere on Hindu temples.—Ed.]

name *siṃhāsana* (lion's throne), and it appears under your hips; king Gambhira, look there! He said: "King of gurus, I understand."

6. *The arms of Vyāsa.*

I shall now make you acquainted with the circumstances concerning the (two) *arms* (plural of *toḥa*) which are tied to Nandi's staff. Veda Vyāsa, who was an incarnation of Indirāraṇa (Vishnu), at first particularly related all the greatness of Hari to his disciple Śukānuni. Afterwards Vyāsa, from madness, composed a *Sāstra* about Hari in which he stated that Hari was greater than Hara, called his excellent disciple, and said: "Leave the former way, and joyfully live according to his!" He said: "King of gurus! Formerly me (way) and now one! Can there be two? Knowing devotees have only one. If you instruct me as if you were instructing unknowing people, it will not do for me." He (Vyāsa) prumbled, arose, became angry, lifted up his hands, and went to kill him. He said: "O guru, shall your arms be torn off? There is no use in this! O guru of true and pure spirit, if you, sitting on your lotus-seat before śrī Viśvanātha (Śiva), read your composition to me with uplifted hands, I will hear and walk according to it." When he (Vyāsa) heard that, he came, sat down before the lord of the three worlds, said: "Now hear with devotion!" He took the *sāstra* with his left hand, read, at the same time lifted his right hand on high, and emphatically said: "The lord Nārāyaṇa is greater than Īśvara!" When lord Basava heard with his ears the string of words (*śabda-ātra*) uttered (by him), he became wrathful, swiftly came, stripped (Vyāsa's) two arms off, and threw them away. Vyāsa arose, came lamenting to Vaiṣṇuṭha, fell at Hari's feet, stood up with his hands joined, and spoke: "O Hari! When I praised thee, saying 'Except thee there is nowhere another deity!' I suffered the loss of my two arms (*hastā*). O Hari, Nārāyaṇa, remover of evil! If thou,

from compassion, wilt be kind enough to give me my two arms (*bāhū*) again, I shall think of thee night and day." He said: "O Vyāsa, foolish man, do not further blaspheme my father! I am the creator of the world, Indudhara (Śiva) is my creator. When he takes away, can I give? Adore the feet of the lord of beings (or, of demons, *bhūta*)! He will graciously show thee favour. Go without fear!" A grantha:—

*Nandikeśa idam śrutvādvrodha-rūpo bhaviṣyati
ākāśopari-chintāyām bāhu-dvayaṁ vimśyati ||
satyaṁ satyaṁ punaḥ satyamuddhṛitya bhujā-
mucyate |*

*vedāch chhāstram paraṁ nāsti na devo keśavāt
paraḥ ||*

*aḥ vyāsa matibhrakṣṭa kiṁ doṣo mama li-
khyate |*

*aḥ sarvajagāt-kartā mama kartā mahe-
śvaraḥ ||*

A śloka:

*Yajña-kartā cha devendro jagat-kartā cha vāk-
patiḥ |*

*aḥ jagati kartā cha mama kartā . mahe-
śvaraḥ ||†*

He (Vyāsa) made obeisance to the feet of Hari, came to the temple (*gudi*) of Hara, performed *sākṣāṅga* at his feet, stood up with his hands joined, and praised him with the *Vyāsaśataka* (a certain song). Parameśa at once was pleased, came, and said: "I will give thee a boon. Pray!" Then he said: "O father, thou with the black throat, give me my two arms, O god!" At that very moment Śiva restored them in a faultless condition. Then the devotees carefully tied the arms which Nandikeśvara had cut off, to the right of Nandi's staff (*dāvaja*), and displayed them at Kāśī and Kalyāṇa.* Further (or, in course of time) the devotees of the town of Indudhara fastened the left arm to the chariot (*vimāna*), which came, sat (in it), and praised properly.

7. *The Lute.*

I shall now tell thee about the lute, king

is the creator of the world, and I am creator in the world; my creator is the great Īśvara!

* Of the śloka as they stand, the following is a translation: (Take care!) When Nandikeśa hears this, he will become wrathful. At (Vyāsa's) thinking (of lifting them) upwards to heaven, the two arms are destroyed. Having lifted up (his) arm, it is uttered (by Vyāsa): (It is) true, true, and again true! (My) *sāstra* is not different from the Peda (in saying): There is no other god but Keśava! Vishnu says: Ho, Vyāsa, foolish man! Why is a wrong thing written (by thee) regarding me? I am the creator of the whole world, (but) my creator is the great Īśvara!—devendra is the creator of sacrifice, and Vākpati (*Brahmā*)

† In the Canarese Basava Purāṇa, 58, v. 53, it is stated that when king Bijjala ruled at Kalyāṇa, and the king himself, a number of Bedas or Kabbīdas, and the Lingāyta inhabitants of the town were once going in procession to Śiva's Temple, the Lingāyatas displayed *Nandikeśvara's* flags, umbrellas, and many *Vyāsahastās* (of cloth). Conf. 5, 39. For this legend, see also Capt. Mackenzie's account of the "Vyāsena-tola Kallu," Ind. Ant. vol. ii. p. 49.

Gambhira! The lovely Pārvati herself came, was well born as Māyā of Kōllāpura, and when growing up shone in many ways. She drove away the munis, and swallowed the contents of Hara's devotion; on her breast she had three nipples, and was a spear for the breasts of men. Hari, Brahmā, Indra, and others fought with Māyā but were unable to bear, came to Hara, and informed him of all. When he heard, he mounted Nandi, swiftly came, and provoked Māyā. She fearlessly came up to him. He with the three eyes said: "Mean dog! why is there so much (pride) in thee?!", and cut off her head, and played with it as with a

ball. Then she quickly praised him. He said: "Without delay I will give thee a boon. Ask!" She said: "Master, purify me!" He seized her tongue and plucked it out, at once made it the sole of a sandal, and put it on. The three pointed steel-nipples he screwed out, looked at them, and made three calabashes (*kāy*) of them; of the backbone he made the *stick* (for playing the lute, *daṇḍigā*), of the fingers the *stops* (or the bridges, *māṭṭu*); applied *strings* (*tanī*) of tendons (*nara*); and then the master of the three worlds gave it the alleviating name of *lute* (*kinnari*), and walked about playing it. Hear, O Gambhira!

CORRESPONDENCE AND MISCELLANEA.

To the Editor of the "Indian Antiquary."

SIR,—I find in the review of the *Panchatantra* (Bombay Sanskrit Series), p. 62 of your fourth volume, the following remark:—

"We will close with one more instance taken from p. 76. We find there this obscure sentence, गतं चतुर्गुणं मत्पितृदत्तम्, which Dr. Kielhorn renders 'you are not guilty of his majesty's पित्र, i.e. you are not guilty of his death.' This is scarcely satisfactory, and we suggest instead 'you have done your duty as regards our master's person.'"

I suppose, Sir, the reviewer takes पित्र to mean the lump of flesh of which his majesty consists.

But for the life of me I cannot understand what objection there is to Professor Benfey's rendering:—"You have made some return to your master for the food which he has given you." This corresponds exactly to the Greek *ἀπέγραψε δειψίας*, and seems to me the rendering which naturally would suggest itself to a reader on first seeing the passage.

It is quite in accordance with Oriental notions, and agrees better with the literal meaning of the word *अनुत्तरम्*, which means "acquittance of debt or obligation."

Please pardon my audacity, and believe me

Yours obediently,

ANURIS.

Calcutta, 9th June 1875.

EMBRYONIC, MUNDANE, AND SUPRAMUNDANE LIFE.

Translated by E. Rehatsek, M.C.E.

From the *Meṇavai* of Jelldi-aldyn-Rāmi, 3rd Dufter.

چون چنین بد آدمی خون بد غذا

از نجس مومن برد پاکي کفا

چون چنین بد آدمی خون خوار بود
بود اورا بد از خون تار و پود
از فطام خون غذايش شیر شد
وز فطام شیر لقمه کبر شد
وز فطام لقمه لقمه لقمه شد
طالب اشکار و پنهانی شود
کر چنین را کس بگفتی در رجم
هست بیرون عالمی بس منظم
یک زمین حرمی با عرض و طول
اندر او صد نعمت و چندین اکول
کوبها و بحرها و دشتها
بومستانها باغها و کشتها
آسمان بس بلند و پر ضیا
آفتاب و ماهتاب و صد صبا
از شمال و از جنوب و از دهور
باغها دارد عروسیها و سور
در صفت ناید عجایبها آن
تو در این ظلمت چکه در امتحان
خون خوری در چار میخ تنگنا
در میان حبس انجاس و هنا
او بحکم حال خود منکر بدی
زین رسالت معرض و کافر شدی
گاین محالست و فریست و غرور
زانکه تصویری ندارد و هم کور
جنس چیزی چون ندید ادراک او
نشود ادراک منکر ناک او
همچنانکه خلق عام اندر جهان
ز انچهان ابدال میگویند شان

کای جهان چاهست بس تاریک و تنگ
 هست بیرون عالمی بی نور و رنگ
 هیچ در گوش کسی زایشان نرفت
 کاین طمع آمد حجابی ژرف زفت
 گوش را بندد طمع از استماع
 چشم را بندد غرض از اطلاع
 همچنانکه آن جان را طمع خون
 گمان غذای اوست در اوطان دون
 از حدیث این جهان محجوب کرد
 خون تن را برداش محجوب کرد
 زین همه انواع نعمت ماند فرد
 غیر خون او نداند چاشت خورد
 بر توهم طمع خروشی این جهان
 شد حجاب آن خوشی جاودان
 طمع ذوق این حیات پر غرور
 از حیات راستیت کرد دور
 پس طمع کورت کند نیکودان
 بر تو پوشاند یقین را بیکمان
 حق ترا باطل نماید از طمع
 در تو صد کوری نژاید از طمع
 از طمع بیزار شو چون راستان
 تا نهی یا برسر آن آستان
 کافران در چون در آری واره
 از غم و شادی قدم بیرون نهی
 چشم جانت روشن و حق بین شود
 بی ظلام کفر نور دین شود

Man feeds on blood as embryo,
 Believers thus by dirt get pure !
 Whilst in the womb, man feeds on blood,
 His warp and woof of blood consists;
 When weaned of blood he milk consumes;
 He morsels eats when weaned of milk;
 But weaned of morsels Lokmān* he becomes,
 Investigates things hidden and revealed.
 Were one to say to embryos in the womb :—
 ' Without, there is a well-arranged world,
 An earth quite joyous, long and broad,
 Of blessings full, and various food;
 With mountains, lakes, and prairies green,
 Parks, gardens, cultivated fields,
 The firmament so high and bright,
 The sun, the moon, with hundred winds,
 Zephyrs from north and south and west,
 With gardens, banquets, nuptials, —
 Its wonders cannot be described.

* Lokmān, the name of a sage, stands here as the emblem of intellect.

How tried you are in this darkness !
 Blood you consume in this closet,
 In dirt and misery confined ; "
 It would deny its state and case,
 Reject this message with full force
 As false, deceit, impossible.
 It has no sense, but understanding blind
 Its mind cannot conceive the thing,—
 The negative mind hearing scorns.
 Just such the crowd is in this nether world
 When Abdāls† moot the world beyond :—
 " This world is but a narrow and dark well ;
 Without, the immaterial world exists." "
 Such words their ears will not accept,—
 A hope like this is thickly veiled ;
 Present enjoyments plug the ear,
 The eye is dimmed by interests ;
 Just as the embryo's greed for blood,
 Which was its food in womb's dark cave,
 Concealed from it the present world,
 The body's blood to it endeared ;
 Thus, unaware of blessings all,
 No other nourishment it had but blood.
 Man's lust for joys of present life
 Eternal joys has veiled from him.
 Your greed for this deceitful life
 From true life has removed you ;
 Be quite aware that lust is blinding you,
 Concealing certainty from you.
 Truth false appears to you from greed,
 Which hundredfold is blinding you.
 Oh, free yourself from greed, like all just men,
 That you your foot on that threshold may place,
 And saved be on entering the gate
 From all terrestrial joys and griefs ;
 Your soul's eye bright and true will see,
 Unsoiled by unbelief, the light of Faith.

[The translator does not take it on himself to correct the metre, when it happens to be faulty.]

MR. F. W. ELLIS.

My attention has been directed to an interesting description, by Mr. R. C. Caldwell, in the *Athenæum* of December 5, of a Tamil MS. in the Library of the India Office, in the course of which he refers to me for a confirmation of some of his statements.

I am glad to have an opportunity of expressing the pleasure I have received from perusing the careful analysis of Beschi's work by so competent a Tamil scholar, and of confirming the accuracy of his narrative as far as relates to the portion with which I am connected. Mr. Caldwell is right in correcting my version of the occasion on which the MS. came into the possession of Muttusāmi Pillei, an error into which I ought not to have fallen, since the sketch of Beschi in the eleventh

† The Abdāls are Illuminati.

volume of the *Madras Literary Journal* was prepared by Muttusámi at my suggestion, and in a foot-note at page 257 he describes the discovery of the volume in Tanjore (not Madura) exactly as given by Mr. Caldwell.

The mission of Muttusámi, however, to collect materials for a life of Béschi took place in 1816, and he must have received the precious volume from Mr. Ellis, who died in 1819, earlier than Mr. Caldwell supposes.

Dr. Roost kindly allowed the MS. to be exhibited to the Turanian Section at the meeting of the Oriental Congress in September, on which occasion Baron Textor de Ravisi, late Governor of the French settlement at Carical, enlarging with enthusiasm on the beauty of the composition, and the perfect condition in which the MS. had been preserved, made the observation which Mr. Caldwell has quoted. I was able then to inform him that, before leaving India, the Proviseur of the Collège Royal at Pondicherry had obtained the loan of it, for the express purpose of printing a new edition, founded on the most accurate text procurable. I cannot recall the exact date of this publication, because the copy with which he was good enough to present me was destroyed, with many other books and papers, on the voyage home. The MS. volume was bound before it came into my hands.

The mention of Mr. Ellis in connection with this subject induces me to add a few particulars regarding one whose merits, as an Oriental scholar are too little known, and whose untimely death, in the prime and vigour of life, proved an irreparable loss to the cause of Dravidian literature.

Arriving in India as a young civilian in 1796, he early devoted himself to the study of the languages, history, and antiquities of the land in which his lot was cast. For upwards of twenty years he devoted all his spare time to the cultivation of Sanskrit and the various dialects peculiar to Southern India. Having determined to publish nothing until he had exhausted every available source of information, he had amassed a vast amount of material, the elaboration of which would have shed a flood of light on the still obscure history of that region, and likewise anticipated much of the knowledge of its philology and literature which recent researches have brought to light. When his task was almost completed, he undertook a journey to Madura, the Athens of the South, for the elucidation of some minor details, and resided for some time with Mr. Rous Petre, the Collector of the district. During a short excursion to Ram-

nad, in the same province, he accidentally swallowed some poison, and died on March 10, 1819. No one was at hand who understood or cared for his pursuits. His ordinary tangible property was sold by auction at Madura and Madras, under instructions from the Administrator-General, but all his papers were lost or destroyed.*

The Madras Literary Society thus alludes to the sad event, in recording the loss "of several of its most able contributors, among whom stood pre-eminent, for indefatigable and successful research into the languages, history, and learning of Southern India, for extensive knowledge, ancient and modern, Oriental and European, for accurate judgment and elegant taste, Francis Whyte Ellis.

"This distinguished scholar carried to his early tomb the stores he had accumulated; for he had resolved to dedicate his life to investigation until the age of forty, and before that time to prepare nothing for communication to the world. Scarcely had he completed the prescribed period of preliminary investigation, when death, with awful suddenness, deprived the world of the benefit of his labours."

But such a man could not pass away without leaving some traces of attainments so highly esteemed by his contemporaries. The first article in the *Transactions* of the Literary Society is a paper by Sir Charles Grey, afterwards Chief Justice in Bengal, founded on a series of disquisitions† on Hindu Law which Mr. Ellis had read at meetings of the Society. In introducing it, Sir Charles observes, "I have here endeavoured to give the substance of the first lecture. The subject has been treated of by Sir William Jones, and by Mr. Colebrooke, and by Mr. Ward, but by none of them, as it seems to me, so perspicuously as by Mr. Ellis." As drafted by Mr. Ellis the treatises filled five hundred folio pages, but, having been roughly prepared for delivery, were not in a fit state to be published, and he had intended on his return to revise them for that purpose.

Some discussion having arisen with reference to proprietary right in land, particularly in the provinces of Malabar and Canara, into which the oppressive fiscal system of Muhammadan rule had scarcely penetrated, the Madras Government, in 1812, circulated a series of questions to officers in charge of districts, requiring them to report fully on the incidents of the tenure known as *wárá*, a term approaching in many respects to our fee-simple. Although Mr. Ellis was then Collector of the Presidency only, which afforded little scope for such inquiries, his answers were

length in answer to the observations upon the Hindu Law in the fourth chapter of the second book of Mill's *History of British India*. The first lecture treated chiefly of the law-books of the Hindus.

* It used to be currently reported that they served Mr. Petre's cook for months to kindle his fire and singe fowls!

† They consisted of three lectures, and a note of some

so full, so exact, and so copiously illustrated by references to the ancient literature and history of the country, that the Government ordered them to be printed, and "Ellis's Replies to Seventeen Questions relative to Mināsi Right" (pp. 65, with two appendices of pp. 85 and 31, folio, Madras, 1813) continues to this day to be the standard authority on the subject.

Another fragment is a selection of stanzas from the first book of the Kural, an ethical poem greatly esteemed by the Tamils. A free metrical version is given of each couplet, followed by a critical analysis of the text, and the subject-matter is then illustrated by numerous quotations from the best native writers, interspersed with valuable notes and disquisitions on the mythology, philosophical systems, and sectarian tenets of the people. Mr. Ellis had proceeded as far as eighteen chapters of the first book when he left Madras, and of these only thirteen were printed, filling 304 quarto pages, without title or date.

He probably also left other minor compositions; such as his essays on the Tamil, Telugu, Malayālim (and perhaps also Canarese?) tongues, for the use of the students in the College of Fort St. George: of the third of which a few separate printed copies exist, and the second is embodied in the Introduction to A. D. Campbell's Telugu Grammar, but the first I have never seen. Among some refuse papers at the College, I one day discovered a translation by him of the Jewish copper-plates at Cochin, and inserted it in vol. xiii. pt. 2 of the *Madras Literary Journal*.

Imperfect as these Reliquiæ are, they suffice to show what might have been expected from so ripe a scholar, had he lived to carry out his long-cherished design.

—*Athenæum*.

WALTER ELLIOT.

TAMIL PROVERBS.*

The word of the destitute does not reach the assembly. That is, an assembly of learned men, or men in power. The words of the poor, whether they relate to oppression, or to other injuries, or to opinion, are not likely to find admission where alone they can avail.

Light breaks on the head of the destitute. Blame or suspicion will fall on the head of the unprotected and friendless. The poor are at work by break of day.

The destitute brings forth a female child, and that on Friday, under the star Pinadum. Used of one suffering from an accumulation of evils. The condition of the parent, the sex of the child, the

day of its birth, and its ruling star are alike inauspicious.

The beauty of the mind appears in the face.

As grain becomes cheaper, enjoyment increases.

He who knows not the price of grain knows not sorrow.

A terrible ascetic, an atrocious cheat.

The friendship of a brother-in-law lasts while one's sister lives.

Will a dog understand the Vedas, although born in a Brahman village?

Do not beat down the market price. Do not contravene the established opinions and practices of the people with whom you are associated.

One who frequently changes his party will receive two slaps here and three cuffs there.

Stunted grain—friendship at sight. Both valueless.

A fifth-born female cannot be obtained, though earnestly sought. A fifth-born female is regarded as the special favourite of fortune, an eighth as the very opposite.

Demons strike the timid.

Are five young birds a curry? Is a young girl a wife?

A woman of fifty must bend the knee before a boy of five.

Referring to the deference paid to the male sex by the Hindoos.

Even tender creepers when united are strong.

One hand smites, the other embraces. Discipline regulated by love; used sometimes of Divine chastisements.

When a neighbour's roof is in flames one's own is in danger.

The leech is not satisfied, nor is fire. Inordinate desire is never satisfied.

Although one may live six months with an elder brother, one cannot abide with his wife even half an hour. The first condition is proverbially difficult, how much more so the second.

The forms of worship prescribed for Śiva are sixty-four; whereas the seasons for feeding religious mendicants are seventy-four.

The value of a father is known after his decease, that of salt when exhausted.

Why ask of the military officer if there is any compulsory service? Why gratuitously seek avoidable evil?

In the world some are high, and many are low.

On earth those who have no salt have no body.

He who lives as he ought in this world will be ranked with the gods.

In all the world none really good has been seen.

* Tamil Proverbs with their English Translation. Consisting upwards of six thousand Proverbs. By the Rev. P. PERCEVAL, Chaplain, Madras Military Female Orphan

Asylum: Author of *The Land of the Veda*, &c. Second Edition. Madras: Dinavartamani Press, Little Bourns, Mysore, 1874.

BOOK NOTICES.

(a) BOMBAY SANSKRIT SERIES. The *Mālavikāgnimitra* of Kālidāsa, edited with notes by Shaṅkar P. Paṇḍit, M.A. 1869.

(b) The *Mālavikāgnimitra* of Kālidāsa, literally translated into English Prose by C. H. Tawney, M.A., Professor of the English Language, Presidency College, Calcutta. 1875.

The number of the *Bombay Sanskrit Series* now to be noticed was edited by one of the few native scholars of the Presidency who have taken part in the work,—the only one perhaps who has grasped the idea of true editorship as held in the West. Mr. Paṇḍit has been most successful in the task he undertook, which was the production, for the first time, of a correct edition of the drama, “based, as every edition of a Sanskrit work ought to be, on the collation of several trustworthy MSS. collected from different parts of India.” Seven manuscripts were thus collated, namely, six written in the Devanāgarī character and obtained from various parts of the Dekhan, and one written in the Telugu character.

We regret, however, to notice in this volume, as indeed in the whole of the Series in a greater or less degree, improvements of the text in the notes at the end. The text is apparently printed first; and then when the notes are prepared, such passages as are found to be untranslatable, or faulty in other respects, are reconsidered, and amended there instead of in the text. But we maintain that such a thorough sifting and testing from every point of view should be made of the text, before it is finally adopted, as to render any after-corrections unnecessary. At any rate, no better advice could possibly be given to the editors of the Series than that tendered by the Bishop of Gloucester to the present revisers of the text of the English Bible, viz. “*Make the reading of the text better than that of the margin or notes.*”

There is one peculiarity in the Prākṛit of the present edition which does not commend itself to our judgment, and that is the doubling of an aspirate by an aspirate, instead of by a non-aspirate as directed by Vararuchi. Thus लक्ष्मी is represented by लक्ष्मी, instead of by लक्ष्मी the form prescribed in the *Prākṛita Prakāśa*. In support of this innovation the editor says, “My authority for the deviation is the concurrent testimony of all the MSS. These have a peculiar method of writing Prākṛit conjuncts. In Sanskrit they give all the components of a conjunct distinctly, but in Prākṛit the presence of the first component of every conjunct letter is merely indicated by a dot placed before it. This dot indicates that the letter before which it is placed is to be doubled. Thus what ought to be fully written अक्षभवे they write अ.क्षभवे, aj-

jaṭṭha is अ-जट-न and not अज्जटन, and so also in the case of conjuncts containing aspirates as दि-डा, ल-डो, पु-क, पु-डिदा.” The inference Mr. Paṇḍit draws from this is not, however, a necessary one. Of course as regards unaspirated letters there can be no doubt as to the meaning of the symbol, but it is not at all clear that in the case of aspirates the dot is intended to represent any kind of doubling different from Vararuchi’s well-known system. But even supposing for the sake of argument that a departure from the grammar was intended by those nameless copyists, would that be any reason for perpetuating it?

The notes appended to the play are excellent, and will be found of considerable value in elucidating it, but their number might with advantage have been greater. They contain three or four inaccuracies which it may be well to point out. For instance, सख्यस्य भव on page 23, means ‘be natural,’ rather than ‘be well composed;’ and दुर्ग, which on page 31 is rendered ‘the shop of a butcher,’ would more correctly be ‘a slaughter-house,’—the latter being open to the sky, and therefore more likely to attract the birds said to be hovering over it. This is confirmed by Professor Tārānātha’s definition of the vocable by शनिवस्थाने. On page 41, line 4, occurs the expression शकादपाण्डुगण्डस्थस्य as an epithet of Mālavikā, the काण्ड of which Mr. Paṇḍit renders ‘the inner part,’ instead of ‘the stem.’ Possibly the *piṭh* of the reed may have been uppermost in the poet’s mind, but as he did not give a form to the thought we have no business to do so for him. The phrase “Nor does conjecture like to acquaint me with that only which is true” is not a good translation of तत्त्वानवेषिकरसो न नर्कः on page 42. A literal rendering would be “Conjecture does not possess perception of truth as its chief essence,” that is, “Conjecture is not always to be relied on.” Whence did Mr. Paṇḍit obtain the meaning ‘blesses’ for the word अवर्षयति in the sentence आदाय कर्णैकितल्यनरमादियमच चक्षुमवर्षयति, the last member of which he renders ‘blesses him (sic) with her foot, i.e. touches or kicks him with her foot.’ The passage needed no note at all, but if the annotator thought otherwise, he might have given us something more accurate than the above. Again, some authority is needed for ‘लक्ष्मि to bite or browse’ (page 77, line 6); the root लप् लक्षयति = आस्वादने, but लप् लक्षितुं has no such meaning. Authority is also needed for the rendering of वैविकान्तर on the next page by ‘lovers,’ and of चौरमज्जुते on page 89 by ‘a leather box.’

Professor Tawney's translation of this drama is admirable. Though nearly literal, it is written in such good bold English as scarcely to betray a foreign original. It has comparatively few mis-translations, whilst many difficult passages have been rendered in excellent style. For most of his foot-notes the Professor is indebted to Mr. Shahkar P. Pandit, but the indebtedness is not always acknowledged. The following are the principal mis-translations:—Page 3, line 2, "I long to perform the order of the spectators which I received some time ago with bowed head." The last three words of this sentence have no equivalent in the original, which stands thus:—

शिरसा प्रथमदृष्टीमात्रमिच्छामि परिषदः कर्तुम्

where the first and last words must be taken together, and so taken mean simply 'to obey' or 'perform.' On the same page, the words 'in which she has for a long time been instructed' are exactly the reverse of what the author says. The translator would seem to have looked at the Sanskrit *chhadya* without attending to the Prākṛit, or observing that, a few pages further on, the queen says "your pupil was but lately handed over to you." Again, 'she is of high birth' (page 6) is an entirely wrong translation of the compound अनुवस्तुका. Equally so is the phrase 'which resembles the cry of a peacock' as the equivalent of मायूरी. The sound of the drum was 'dear to the peacocks' (not in the least resembling their cry), because like the sound of the thunder indicating the approach of rain. On pages 35 and 47 we find the expression "bimba-like hips" as the rendering of नितम्बविन and श्रीणीविन;—we have often met with the epithet 'bimba-like' applied to a woman's *lips*, but certainly not to her *hips*!

Again, "I accept the omen, the word of a Brāhman must come true" (page 38), is not the meaning of परिपरीतं वचः सिद्धिदक्षिणो ब्राह्मणस्य, nor 'besides' of अहं वा (page 40). In the latter case the attendant had been saying "I have finished painting one of your feet. It is only necessary to breathe on it." Then, observing that there was a wind, she says "अहं वा पवादो एवमर्थं परसौ." "Yet no, (my breath is unnecessary, for) this place is windy." It is difficult to see how का अम्हे भट्टिणो एवमप्यस्यस्य can be made to mean "Who are we that we should attract the attention of the king?" (page 46), but perhaps the Professor's text differed from ours.

The word translated 'finger' on page 52 means 'thumb' only; and lower down on the same page the words 'best remedy' should rather be 'the first thing to be done' (पुनःकर्म); whilst the true force of दृष्टमात्रम in the same clause is 'inmedi-

ately they have been bitten.' The foot-note on this last word is misleading.

It is to be hoped that the Professor had a different reading from ours of the passage on page 53 which he renders 'the poor creature is attacked with cramps'; our edition reads अनुसं दष्टं विदारणे. Again, 'that is very strange,' page 62, is too weak a rendering of अन्वहितं, which implies rather 'a great calamity.' Lastly, महासागणि रत्नवाहकानि simply means 'jewelled vehicles of great value,' and not 'valuable waggon-loads of jewels.' Jewels were not so plentiful as the learned translator seems to have supposed, even in the gorgeous East. In bidding adieu to these two works we heartily wish them the success they so well deserve.

TALIB-UL-ILM.

A DICTIONARY OF THE HINDI LANGUAGE, BY J. D. BATE, Missionary. Benares: Lazarus & Co.; London: Trübner & Co. 1873.

It is much to be regretted that the liberal policy which led to the compilation of Molesworth's inestimable dictionary of Marāṭhī has not been extended to the sister languages, especially to Hindi, which is without exception the most important of all. Private enterprise has in this case come forward to supply the want, and, we must admit, with admirable success.

Mr. Bate's dictionary leaves comparatively little to be desired,—indeed the author has been prodigal of his stores of knowledge, and has bounteously poured out information of a kind seldom bestowed upon us by dictionary-makers. Not only has he given a separate article to each archaic form of the cases of nouns and pronouns, of the tenses of verbs, and the numerous varieties of adverbs and particles, but he has prefixed to each letter a carefully condensed and digested summary of the phonetic variations which it undergoes, and of the functions which it discharges. These short essays are extremely valuable, and will guide the student through the misty mazes of Hindi spelling. In harmony with the principles laid down in these essays, the author gives with great profusion every conceivable form of which Hindi words are capable. The usefulness of this course cannot be exaggerated; in previously existing works, like Thomson and Forbes, seldom can any but the correct form be found, and the student who found in his Tulsī Dās or Bihārī Lāl a word which those worthies saw fit to distort in order to suit their metre, had no hope of finding out its meaning unless he could of his own knowledge restore the word to its proper shape—a task to which few but the most advanced

scholars would be equal. How great an obstacle the want of a key to these distorted forms has been, may be judged from the fact that some of the first Oriental scholars in Europe have confessed their inability to master old or mediæval Hindi, and the extensive literature which the language contains has chiefly from this cause been refused the attention it merits, and has remained a sealed book to many who would otherwise gladly have studied it. Mr. Bate's work for the first time removes this difficulty, and the Hindi writers are now at last accessible to ordinary students.

All the pure Sanskrit *Tatsamas*, and all the Arabic and Persian words which are employed either by Hindi authors or by the peasantry of the present day, are given and clearly explained. There is a wealth of illustration on the subjects of religious festivals, legends, superstitions, games, proverbs, and slang terms which is enough to satisfy the most exacting demands, and the renderings of various shades of meaning are judiciously and clearly set forth. Dialectic forms from the Braj Bhākha, Mārwarī, Mewārī, and other rustic varieties of speech are freely given, and each word is labelled with the dialect to which it belongs. Perhaps a little more might have been done in this direction, but those who know the difficulty of collecting and explaining these rare words will not be disposed to do more than express a hope that the learned author may be able in a second edition to give us more of this valuable element.

Much attention has evidently been paid to the vexed question of gender, and the author doubtless has good reasons for the decided way in which he labels hitherto doubtful words as either masculine or feminine. Here and there even he is unable to decide the point, and gives us notes such as *m.* (*f.* ?); but these instances are rare.

It gives one rather a feeling of surprise to come across such words as हबकुक "the prophet Habakkuk," यरमिह "Jeremiah," यरुसलम "Jerusalem," जर्दन "Jordan," and it is questionable whether these Hebrew words have any right to a place in a Hindi dictionary. They are certainly not commonly used in that language by any class except the very small one of native converts. Those of the ancient Jewish lawgivers and prophets whose names were known to Muhammad, and by him introduced to his followers, generally have had their names Arabized, and in this way Musā, Dāūd, Sulaymān, and ʿĪsā are known wherever the Muhammadan religion prevails. In this way they are perhaps known dimly to the Hindus of the Hindi-speaking area; but it is doubtful if more than half a dozen of such names, at the outside, have obtained sufficient currency to justify

their being inserted in a dictionary of Hindi. Moreover, if these few words are inserted at all, they should appear in their Musalmān dress, in which alone they are known to the people of these provinces. It is difficult to see why the apostle Paul appears at all, still more so why he is called *Pāvala*. The Roman name which he substituted for his original Hebrew *Shālōm* would be more accurately transliterated पैदुस *Paulus*, and this word is also given in the dictionary. The Muhammadans know him as *Belus*, and although the ludicrous associations of this word to modern Englishmen would prevent us from recommending its use, yet *Pāvala* is neither one thing nor the other, and arises merely from our English mispronunciation. Because we, with our barbarous perversion of vowel-sounds, have changed *Pav-lus* into *Paw-l*, there is no reason to teach the Hindus to do so. The great apostle's name, as he himself pronounced it, would, when deprived of the Latin termination, rhyme to 'growl,' we erroneously make it rhyme to 'bawl.' Perhaps the most strictly accurate spelling, and that which would best reproduce the exact Roman pronunciation in all its broadness, would be not पैदुस but पाडुस.

Exception might perhaps be taken to the author's practice of inserting under व a large number of words which are pronounced as if written with व. In Hindi initial व is very rare, and is for the most part confined to the demonstrative pronoun वह and its numerous derivatives. Where the Hindi poets write व, they probably do so merely because with their thick pens it was rather troublesome to put in the fine cross-stroke in the loop of the व, and most Hindus when reading poetry pronounce both व and व alike as *ū*. We are disposed to think that the initial व should only have been used for *Tatsamas* and the demonstrative pronoun.

It is unfair to pick holes, however, in so thoroughly excellent a book, which must have cost the author much labour and thought. The best test of its excellence is that to which the present writer has subjected it, namely, reading by its aid several obscure and difficult passages of the Hindi poets, and looking out all the words of the various rural *patois* which he remembers having heard during his sojourn in Hindustān. Tested in this way the work vindicates its claim to be a safe and satisfactory key to the language which it undertakes to expound, and Mr. Bate has undoubtedly earned the thanks of all those who require to study Hindi by this careful and scholarly performance.

J. B.

THE TRADITION OF THE GOLD-DIGGING ANTS.*

BY FREDERIC SCHIERN, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF COPENHAGEN.

Translated by Anna-M. H. Childers.

HERODOTUS is the earliest Greek writer who mentions gold-digging ants. Omitting irrelevant matter, the following is the account he gives of them:—

"Besides these there are Indians of another tribe, who border on the city of Kaspapyrus and the country of Paktyika: these people dwell northward of all the rest of the Indians, and follow nearly the same mode of life as the Baktrians. They are more warlike than any of the other tribes, and from them the men are sent forth who go to procure the gold. For it is in this part of India that the sandy desert lies. Here in this desert there live amid the sand great ants, in size somewhat less than dogs, but bigger than foxes. The Persian king has a number of them, which have been caught by the hunters in the land whereof we are speaking. These ants make their dwellings underground, and, like the Greek ants, which they very much resemble in shape, throw up sand-heaps as they burrow. Now the sand which they throw up is full of gold. The Indians when they go into the desert to collect this sand take three camels and harness them together, a female in the middle, and a male on either side in a leading-rein. The rider sits on the female, and they are particular to choose for the purpose one that has just dropped her young: for their female camels can run as fast as horses, while they bear burdens very much better. . . . When, then, the Indians reach the place where the gold is, they fill their bags with the sand and ride away at their best speed: the ants, however, scenting them, as the Persians say, rush forth in pursuit. Now these animals are so swift, they declare, that there is nothing in the world like them: if it were not, therefore, that

the Indians get a start while the ants are mastering, not a single gold-gatherer could escape. During the flight the male camels, which are not so fleet as the females, grow tired, and begin to drag first one and then the other: but the females recollect the young which they have left behind, and never give way or flag. Such, according to the Persians, is the manner in which the Indians get the greater part of their gold: some is dug out of the earth, but of this the supply is more scanty."†

Such is the story of the gold-digging ants as told by the far-travelled Herodotus, "the Humboldt of his time," who had come to Susa for the preparation of his magnificent history, a work scarcely less valuable from a geographical and ethnological than from a historical point of view. The story, for the truth of which Herodotus was compelled to rely entirely upon the statements of the Persians, we find repeated by a great many later Greek and Roman authors.‡ How deeply the legend had taken root among the ancient Greeks may best be seen from the narrative of Harpokration, who records the sarcasms of the comic poets relative to a fruitless expedition against the gold-digging ants undertaken by the Athenians with troops of all arms, and provisions for three days. "It was rumoured among the Athenians one day," he says, "that a mound of gold-dust had been seen on Mount Hymettus guarded by the warlike ants: whereupon they armed themselves and set out against the foe, but returning to Athens after much expenditure of labour to no purpose, they said mockingly to

* Professor Schiern's essay was published in the *Verhandl. Kgl. Deutschen Gesellsch. der Wissensch.* for 1870, and was also printed separately as a pamphlet in Danish, German, and French. My translation is from the French version, which is considerably abridged, and therefore more suited to the pages of the *Antiquary*. I have slightly condensed the text in a few places. I take this opportunity of pointing out that Professor Schiern is not the first who has supposed the gold-digging ants to be Tibetan miners, as will be seen by the following extract from an article in the *Poll Mull Gazette* of March 16, 1869, written by Sir Henry Rawlinson:—"Now then for the first time we have an explanation of the circumstances under which so large a quantity of gold is, as is well known to be the case, exported to the west from Khoten, and finds its way into India from Tibet; and it is probable that the search for gold in this region has been going on from a very remote antiquity, since no one can read the Pandit's account of the Tibetan miners, 'living in tents some seven or eight feet below the surface of the ground, and collecting the excavated earth in heaps previous to washing the gold out of the soil,' without being reminded of the description which Herodotus gives of the

'ants in the land of the Indians bordering on Kaspapyrus (or Kaspapyrus for Kaspapura or Kaspamir), which made their dwellings underground, and threw up sand-heaps as they burrowed, the sand which they threw up being full of gold.' Professor Wilson indeed long ago, and before it was known there were any miners actually at work in Tibet, suggested this explanation of the story in Herodotus, on the mere ground that the grains of gold collected in that country were called *pipilika* or *ant-gold*." To Professor Schiern is, however, unquestionably due the merit of an independent discovery, and above all of the lucid and laborious exposition of the evidence in favour of his theory.—A. M. H. C.

† Herodotus, III. 102, 105. I take the translation from Rawlinson.—A. M. H. C.

‡ Com. Strabo, II. 1; Arrian, *de Exped. Alexand.* V. 4; *Indica*, 5; Dio Chrysostom. *Orat.* XXXV.; Philostrate, *de Vita Apollonii* IV. 1; Clem. Alex. *Procl.* II. 12; *Ælian*, *de Nat. An.* XV. 14; Harpokration, s. v. χρυσόρυξις; Themist. *Orat.* XXVII.; Heliodor. X. 26; Tzet. *Chil.* XII. 330-340; Pseudo-Callisth. II. 29; Schol. ad Sophocl. *Antig.* v. 1025.

each other, 'So you thought you were going to smelt gold!'"

The gold-digging ants of the Indians are mentioned in the writings of the Middle Ages and in those of the Arabian authors, and the tradition of them survived among the Turks as late as the sixteenth century. None of the authorities throw any doubt upon the truth of the tradition except Strabo, who treats the whole story as a fiction, and Albertus Magnus, who in quoting it adds, "sed hoc non satis est probatum per experimentum."

The advent of criticism did not at once dispel the belief in this fable. So late as the end of the last century we find the learned Academician Larcher, in his French translation of Herodotus,* cautioning his readers against hastily rejecting the narrative of the Greek historian; and two years later, in 1788, Major James Rennel, while admitting the exaggerations of the story, gives it none the less as his opinion that the formidable adversaries of the Indians were termites or white ants.† In the 19th century when people at length ceased to look upon these bellicose gold-diggers as really ants, the opinion began to prevail that there had simply been a confusion between the names of the ant and of some animal of larger size. In connection with this view, or even excluding the hypothesis of a confusion of names, it was also supposed that a certain resemblance between the ant and some larger animal had given rise to the fable, or at least contributed to maintain it. The idea of resemblance was especially grounded on the larger animal's mode of digging its burrow, or excavating the earth with any other object. This animal has been variously identified with the corsac or Tartary fox, the hyena, the jackal, the hamster (*Mus cricetus*) and the marmot.‡ The theory that the auriferous earth cast up by burrowing animals guided the Indian gold-seekers, and originated the tradition of the gold-digging ants, is curiously confirmed by an observation of

Alexander von Humboldt: "I have often been struck," he says, "by seeing ants in the basaltic districts of the highlands of Mexico carrying along shining grains of hyalith, which I was able to pick out of the anthills."§ But the supposed similarity which has led to classifying as ants animals widely different from them is not limited to their mode of excavating or throwing up the earth, for an attempt has also been made to extend it to their shape and general appearance. This was done long ago by Jacob Gronovius in his interpretation of the ancient narrative,|| and even in our own time Xivrey expresses himself still more plainly to the same effect.¶

The hypothesis of a confusion of names had to be entirely abandoned when Wilson pointed out that the ancient Sanskrit literature of India itself mentions these ants. In a remarkable passage of the great Indian epic, the *Mahābhārata*, we have an enumeration of the treasures sent by the Northern tribes to king Yudhishthira, one of the sons of Pāṇḍu, and among them are lumps of *paipūṭika* gold, so called because it was collected by ants (*pipilika*).* Apart from this fact, it must be admitted that the burrowing habits of foxes, jackals and hyenas hardly afford a plausible pretext for confounding them with ants: it would be more natural to make comparisons of this sort with certain rodents such as marmots, but even those who adopt this solution make no attempt to ignore its weak points. Thus Lassen writes: "The accounts of their prodigious swiftness, their pursuit and destruction of gold-seekers and their camels, must be looked upon as purely imaginary, since they (marmots) are slow in their movements and of a gentle disposition."† In the same way Peschel makes the following admission: "It has not been hitherto explained on what grounds such remarkable speed and ferocity should be attributed to these ants, while marmots are represented as peace-loving crea-

* Tome III. p. 339.

† *Memoir of a Map of Hindostan*, Int. p. xxix.

‡ Conf. Link, *Die Urwelt und das Alterthum* (Berlin, 1831-32), I. 253; Ritter, *Die Erdkunde*, III. 659; Humboldt, *Kosmos*, II. 170; Wahl, *Erdbeschreibung von Ostindien* (Hamburg, 1803-7), II. 485, 486; Wilford, *Asiat. Res.* XIV. 417; Kruse, *Indiens alte Geschichte* (Leipzig, 1856), p. 39; Heeren, *Ideen über die Politik*, I. 1, 349; Vigne, *Travels in Kashmir*, &c. II. 227; Peschel, *Der Ursprung und die Verbreitung einiger geographischen Mythen im Mittelalter*,

II. 263; Lassen, *Ind. Alt.* I. 50, 1022; Cunningham, *Ladak*, p. 232.

§ *Kosmos*, II. 432. Compare the story of the diamond anthill in the case of Rubery v. Sampson.—Ed.

|| Worte in den Anmerkungen zu *Tschuankes Ausgabe von Pomponius Mela* (Leipzig, 1806), III. 3, 245.

¶ *Traditions théologiques*, pp. 265, 267.

* Wilson, *Ariana Antiqua*, p. 133, and *Jour. R. As. Soc.* (1843) vol. VII. p. 143.

† *Ind. Alt.* I. 1022.

tures."* In short, as regards those writers who have endeavoured to explain the confusion of names by a certain external resemblance, suffice it to say that they have themselves despaired of finding an animal that would satisfy the conditions of their theory. Xivrey naively attributes this difficulty to the *auri sacra fames*, holding that a race of gold-digging animals may have really existed, and gradually disappeared before the incursions of man.†

We now come to a wholly different solution of the question. So long ago as the year 1819 Malte-Brun wrote: "May we not also suppose that an Indian tribe really bore the name of ants?"‡ It is by following up the clue thus afforded by our learned countryman that we may hope to arrive at a solution of this question. But it will be necessary in the first place to determine in what direction we are to look for the dwelling-place of the gold-digging ants, by taking as our starting-point the places mentioned by Herodotus. According to the Greek historian, the Indians who went in search of the gold lived in the neighbourhood of the city of Kaspetyrus (Κασπέτυρος) and of Paktyike (ἡ Πακτική χώρα). Now the inhabitants of Paktyike are none other than the Afghans, who in the west call themselves Pashtun and in the east Pakhtun,§ a name identical with that given to them by Herodotus. As to the second locality, instead of Kaspetyrus, the name given in most editions of Herodotus, the *Codez Saneftianus*, preserved in Emanuel College, Cambridge, gives that of Kaspapyrus (Κασπάπυρος), a reading found also in Stephanus Byzantinus, and clearly pointing to the ancient name of the capital of Kāsmīr, Kāśyapapura, contracted to Kāśyapara.

We are thus brought to Kāsmīr. We have in our own times seen how the Sikhs, the present masters of Kāsmīr, took possession of large portions of Tibet, namely, of Ladak or Central Tibet in 1831, and of Balti or Little Tibet in 1840. But we know that in former times the

Subāhdars, or governors of Kāsmīr under the Great Mughul, and earlier yet the kings, both Muhammadan and Hindu, of independent Kāsmīr, likewise strove to extend their conquests in the same direction. And hence we may well suppose that it was to Tibet that the Indians of Herodotus repaired when they left their native Kāsmīr in search of gold. This supposition is confirmed by the fact that Strabo and the elder Pliny expressly mention the Dards as those who robbed the ants of their treasures.|| For the Dards are not an extinct race. According to the accounts of modern travellers, they consist of several wild and predatory tribes dwelling among the mountains on the north-west frontier of Kāsmīr, and by the banks of the Indus:¶ they are the Daradas of Sanskrit literature. They understand Pushtu, the language of the Afghans,* but their native tongue is a Sanskritic idiom. Even at the present day they carry on their marauding profession in Little and Central Tibet, and it is chiefly on this account that the picturesque vale of Huzara, which has at all times belonged to Little Tibet, remains in great part waste, in spite of its natural fertility.† Mir Izzet Ullah, the travelling companion of Moorcroft, who visited Tibet in 1812, writes as follows in his *Journal*:—"The houses of this country from Matayin to this place are all wrecked and deserted. Last year a great number of the inhabitants were carried off by bands of Dards, an independent tribe who live in the mountains three or four days' march north of Diras, and speak Pashtu and Daradi. The prisoners made by them in these raids are sold for slaves."‡

Ælian, who makes the river Kamylinus the limit of the ant country,§ throws no light upon the question of Tibet, for it is impossible to gather from the text whether or not the Kamylinus denotes a branch of the Indus. But Tibet is indicated with tolerable certainty in the remarkable passage of the *Mahābhārata* above referred to, as well as in the statements of Herodotus, Strabo, and Pliny. For among the north-

* *Der Ursprung und Verbreitung einiger geographischen Mythen im Mittelalter*, in *Deutsche Vierteljahrsschrift*, II. 266.

† *Trad. tératologiques*, p. 267.

‡ *Mémoire sur l'Inde septentrionale*, in *Nouvelles Annales des Voyages* (Paris, 1819), II. 382.

§ *Hindustanisch Pathan*.—Ed.

|| Strabo, XV. 1; Pliny, *Hist. Nat.* VI. 22; XI. 36.

¶ Vigne, *Travels*, II. 300; Leitner, *Dardistan*, II. 31-34.

* Vigne, *Travels*, II. 298.

† Moorcroft and Trebeck, *Travels*, II. 264; Vigne, *Travels*, II. 250, 297, 300, 303.

‡ *Voyage dans l'Asie centrale*, in Klaproth's *Magasin Asiatique*, II. 3-5; conf. Wilson's preface to Moorcroft and Trebeck's *Travels*, I. xviii.

§ *Ælian*, *de Nat. An.* III. 4.

ern tribes who brought to king Yudhishthira the *paiplika* gold the Khasas are expressly mentioned; and not only are the Khasas frequently alluded to in the Káśmīrian chronicle *Rāja Tarāṅgiṇī*, which locates them in the neighbourhood of the city of Káśmīr,* but they are even known at the present day under the name of Khasiyas, as a people speaking one of the Indian languages, and dwelling on the borders of Tibet.† In the passage relating to the tribute brought to the king by the Khasas and other northern tribes, the *Mahābhārata* also speaks of "sweet honey made from the flowers of Himavat," and of "fine black chāmara, and others that were white and brilliant as the moon." Now Himavat is only another name for the Himālaya, and chāmara is the name of the fans or fly-flaps which in India kings only are allowed to use, and which are made from the tail of the Yak or Tibetan ox (*Bos grunniens*).‡

Tibet, and especially Eastern or Chinese Tibet, has for a long time been a *terra incognita*. We owe the best information of recent date respecting this country to the Paṇḍits, or learned Brāhmins, who were commissioned by the British Government to explore Eastern Tibet, and passed themselves off in that country as Bisabiri merchants. The first expedition undertaken by them was in 1865-6, and in the course of it one of the Paṇḍits reached Lassa, the capital of Eastern Tibet, and the course of the Brahmaputra was carefully observed.§ The second expedition, which took place in 1867, placed it beyond a doubt that the Indus has near its source, north of the Himālaya, an eastern tributary, and that this tributary, named by the Tibetans Singh-gi-Chu or Singh-gi-Khamba, is in fact the true Indus; while the other branch, till then wrongly considered the principal one, is much smaller than the eastern one, and is called by the natives Garjung-Chu.|| During this expedition, the Paṇḍit who had been at Lassa fell in at Thok-Jalung, an important gold-field in the province of Nari

Khorsum, with a large encampment of Tibetan miners, and took the opportunity to gain information relative to the working of mines. In the third expedition, in 1868, another Paṇḍit pushed on as far as Rudok, at the north-west extremity of Chinese Tibet, on the frontier of Ladak, and on his way back from Rudok visited the gold-fields of Thok-Nianmo, Thok-Sarlung,¶ and Thok-Jalung. The map which accompanies Major Montgomerie's narrative of the journeys of the Paṇḍits gives in addition the gold-fields of Thok-Munnak, Thok-Ragyok, Thok-Ragung, and Thok-Dalung, situate in the same district. Now we know from the Tibetan annals that the Sathol* or 'gold-country,' with which these expeditions of discovery have made us more familiar, already bore this characteristic name in the tenth century of our era. And we will now endeavour to prove that fifteen hundred years before the tenth century this country was the scene of the identical mining operations that are witnessed there at the present day—or, in other words, that the gold-digging ants of antiquity are no other than the Tibetan miners with whom the Paṇḍits have made us acquainted.

In the first place the features of the country agree with the descriptions of the ancient writers. Herodotus places the gold-digging ants in a desert (*ἄρηαι*), and Strabo makes them live on a mountain plateau (*ὄρηδες*) 3000 stadia, or from seventy to eighty geographical miles,† in circumference. This description very fairly corresponds with the lofty plateaus of Tibet, containing the gold-fields of Nari-Khorsum. The Paṇḍits who visited the country in 1867 found that eastward of Garthok‡ it formed a vast table-land, arid and desolate,§ called, from the great number of antelopes found there, Chojotol, or 'plain of antelopes.'|| "No signs of a path or of either houses or tents were to be seen, and the party became anxious as to fresh water.—No palatable water could be got till they found a glacier and melted its ice."|| The single Paṇḍit who, in spite of these difficulties, succeeded—

* Troyer's transl. II. 321 ff.; Neumann, *Geschichte des englischen Reiches in Asien* (Leipzig, 1867), I. 209; Lassen, *Ind. Alt.* I. 1029; Hue, *Souvenirs d'un Voyage dans la Tartarie*, &c. 264-66, 311, 321, 381.

† Hodgson in *Jour. As. Soc. Beng.* (1848) XVII. 546; Lassen, *Ind. Alt.* I. 24, 67, 459, 473-74, 646, 1020-21.

‡ *Ælian*, de Nat. An. XV. 14; conf. Bernier, *Voyage* (Amst. 1699), II. 306.

§ Montgomerie, *Report of a Route Survey*, in *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.* (1868) vol. XXXVIII. pp. 129-219.

|| *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.* vol. XXXIX. pp. 146-187.

¶ *Proc. R. Geog. Soc.* XIV. 210; *Jour.* XXXVIII. 174.

* Sar is the Tibetan name for gold.

† German geographical miles of 15 to a degree (P).—Ed.

‡ Garthok is situated on the banks of the Gartung-Chu. The second part of the name, Thok or Thog, implies great elevation. Schlagintweit-Sakimlinski, *Reisen in Indien und Hochasien*, III. 54.

§ Montgomerie, in *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.* XXXIX. 140, 150.

|| *Ibid.*

ed in reaching Thok-Jalung found it to be also situated upon a "large desolate plain." When he and the other Pandits, on their return journey, left Giachuroff, a Tibetan encampment on the banks of the Indus, on the 4th of September, they met great numbers of nomads with flocks of sheep and cattle, but it was not until they reached a small village on the 7th of September that they saw the first signs of cultivation. With regard to the journey from Thok-Jalung to the monastery of Tadum, which lies on the highroad to Lassa, they were told that there were other great plains to cross. Again, when the Pandit who got to Rudok in 1868 left that hamlet for Thok-Jalung he could perceive no lofty mountain-peak on the north or east, and established the existence in this direction also of a very extensive plain, called by the Tibetans Changtang, or "the Great Plain." It is only in fact in the country north-east of the branch of the Indus called by the natives Singh-gi-Khamba that the gold-fields mentioned above are found. And in this respect the Singh-gi-Khamba recalls the way in which the river Kampylinus is mentioned by Ælian.

Local circumstances also explain how it was that the Tibetan miners gave rise, at first sight, to the notion that they were animals. The origin of the name Himálaya is the same at that of Sneekoppe, Snowdon, Ben Nevis, and Sierra Nevada.† Dhavalâgiri, like Lebanon and Mont Blanc, means White Mountain, and Thok-Jalung is even higher than Mont Blanc, the miners' camp being, according to the measurements of the Pandits, 16,330 feet above the sea-level. The Pandit who remained at Thok-Jalung from the 26th to the 31st of August 1867, states that never in any of his travels did he experience such piercing cold as at that place, and the director of the mines informed him that in winter all the miners are dressed in furs, since no one could live at that season without them.‡ Now when we consider that the Laplanders, clothed as they were from head to foot with the skins of reindeer, appeared to Tor-

neus to resemble those animals, we can easily understand that the sight of our Tibetan miners in their winter dress should have called up the same idea. But more than this—the Tibetan features themselves are sufficient to suggest the comparison to foreigners of the Aryan race. Their noses are extremely flat,§ and Pallas, after remarking that Tibetans were often met with among the Mongols and at Kiachta on the border of Siberia, adds, "they all bear in their faces an almost incredible resemblance to apes."|| Add to this their extraordinary habits. "Their customary mode of saluting one another is to loll out the tongue, grin, nod, and scratch their ear;"¶ and all, from the highest to the lowest, when they wish to sleep "draw their knees close up to their heads, and rest on their knees and elbows. . . . The Tibetans employed in Ladak by the Survey, though provided with tents, universally slept in the way described above, arranging themselves in a circle round the tent."* Fancy a few hundred miners, muffled in furs, lying asleep in this posture!

But why should these men who look like animals suggest the idea of ants in particular? The Pandit to whom we owe our information about Thok-Jalung had remarked on his first journey into Eastern Tibet that the wind is everywhere very strong on the high Tibetan plateaux;† and with regard to the piercing cold which prevails at Thok-Jalung in summer, he observes that it is far rather to be attributed to the icy winds which constantly blow there than to its elevation above the sea. Accordingly the miners do not merely remain underground while at work,‡ but their small black tents, which are made of a felt-like material manufactured from the hair of the Yak, are set in a series of pits with steps leading down into them. "The tents of the diggers," says the Pandit, "are always pitched in pits some seven or eight feet below the surface of the ground, so as to keep out the wind."§ The account received by Herodotus (III. 102) of the gold-digging ants, that "they made themselves subterranean dwellings," is therefore literally applicable to

* Montgomerie in *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.* XXXIX. pp. 151, 156, 162; and *Proc.* XIX. 268-9; *Jour.* XXXIII. 21.

† Pliny, *Hist. Nat.* VI. 17; Ptolemy, *Geog.* VI. 13.

‡ *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.* XXXIX. 152.

§ Schlagintweit-Sakibnaki, *Reisen in Indien*, II. 49.

|| Sammlungen historischer Nachrichten über die Mongolischen Völkerschaften, II. 407; conf. Koeppen, *Die Reliq. des Buddha*, II. 44, 45.

¶ Hooker's *Himalayan Journals*, I. 122; Hue, *Souvenirs*, II. 296, 316, 403, 479.

* *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.* XXXIX. 155.

† *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.* XXXVIII. 152.

‡ On nearing Thok-Jalung the Pandit heard their songs before he could see them.

§ *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.* XXXIX. 154.

the miners of Thok-Jalung; and this fact, added to the active habits of miners, doubtless first occasioned their being called ants by the ancients.

An ancient record, fortunately preserved to our day, seems to prove beyond doubt that the original tradition of the gold-digging ants referred in the first instance to the Tibetan miners; and to this evidence, which we owe to Megasthenes, I attach the greatest importance. Seleukus Nikator I., the founder of the Greek dynasty in Syria, sent Megasthenes as ambassador to the Indian king Sandrakottos or Sandragptos, whom modern science has long identified with king Chandragupta. At the Indian capital, called by the Greeks Palibothra, but the true name of which was Pataliputra, Megasthenes had frequent opportunities of intercourse with the Brâhmins. During his residence he collected materials for a work in India, which bore the title of *ῥά Ἰνδία*, but has, unfortunately, only been handed down to us in fragments by other ancient authors. From one of these fragments, preserved by Strabo (XV. 1), who himself had little confidence in Megasthenes, we learn that the latter had recorded the following fact regarding the famous Indian ants:—"It is in winter that they excavate the earth, which they heap up at the mouth of the pit like moles." The same statement is to be found in Pliny (*H. N.* XI. 36), who says: "The gold is dug up by them in winter, and the Indians carry it off in summer." Now it is a remarkable fact that the Pandit tells us of the miners of Thok-Jalung: "spite of the cold, the diggers prefer working in winter; and the number of their tents, which in summer amounts to 300, rises to nearly 600 in winter. They prefer the winter, as the frozen soil then stands well, and is not likely to trouble them much by falling in."*

Megasthenes informs us that the Indian ants "lived by hunting,"† and we know of the Tibetan miners that they procure their food by hunting the Yak and other wild animals.‡ But though possessed of arms they are not, even on their desert plateau, secure from the attacks of robbers. The third Pandit, who visited Eastern

Tibet in 1868, was an eye-witness of such an attack when, on his return from Rudok, he reached a Tibetan encampment in the neighbourhood of the gold-field of Thok-Nianmo. An annual fair was being held, and the Sarpön, or chief inspector of the gold district, happened to be present. The assailants, a troop of mounted brigands said to have come from the great Tengri-Nor, or Lake of Nam-cho-Chimbo, consented under these circumstances to withdraw on payment of a sum of money; § but the incident shows that keeping watch-dogs was by no means a useless precaution on the part of the Tibetan miners. In the 13th century Marco Polo praises the Tibetan dogs, which he says were "of the bigness of asses," for their cleverness in hunting wild beasts,|| and in our century Mir Izzet Ullah, whose journey we have already alluded to, remarks as follows:—"The dogs of Tibet are twice the size of those of Hindustan: they have large heads, long hair, a formidable amount of strength, and great courage: they are said to be a match for a lion."¶ The Pandit to whom we owe the best information on Eastern Tibet, and who before reaching Thok-Jalung had already had an opportunity of seeing these dogs at Lassa, tells us that they are called by the Tibetans Gyaki, or 'royal dogs.* It is therefore quite conceivable that the ferocious giant dogs of Tibet should often have been confounded with their masters. Herodotus' stories of the speed with which the gold-digging ants pursued the Indians, and of the presence of some of these animals at the Persian court, are perhaps applicable to these dogs, and not to their masters. Alluding to an account in which a pack of Turkish dogs are represented as having taken part in the war against the Russians in 1769-74, M. de la Barre Duparcq has thought himself justified in taking it as though the *Seybaudi* or dog-keepers in the Seraglio at Constantinople had been sent on this occasion in great numbers to reinforce the army.† Now if in the 18th century, by a wrong interpretation, expressions were applied to the Turkish dogs which were intended for their masters, it is easy to understand that a

* *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.* XXXIX. 154.

† Strabo, XV. 1.

‡ *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.* XXXIX. 155.

§ *Proc. R. Geog. Soc.* XIV. 209.

|| *Le Livre de Marco Polo*, II. 380.

¶ Klaproth, *Magasin Asiatique*, II. 16.

* *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.* XXXIX. 152.

† *Les Chiens de Guerre* (Paris, 1869), p. 140.

imilar or converse confusion may have taken place at a much earlier period.

But, setting aside the giant dogs of Tibet, we are only to recall what has been said about the ants in which the Tibetan miners muffle themselves in winter, in order to arrive at the most natural explanation of the account given by Nearchus, the friend of Alexander's boyhood. When Nearchus quitted India he was commissioned, as is well known, to descend the Indus and proceed by sea from the mouth of that river to that of the Euphrates. It appears that he wrote an account of his voyage entitled *Περὶ Ἰνδοῦ*, in which, according to Strabo and Arrian, he stated that although he had not, while in India, succeeded in meeting with a living specimen of the gold-digging ants, he had yet seen the skin* of one of them, and that it resembled the hide of a panther. Many of these skins were brought to the Macedonian camp.†

The description of the gold-digging ants contains yet another peculiarity, the explanation of which has hitherto been a great perplexity: I refer to Pliny's assertion that the horns of an Indian ant were preserved as a curiosity in the temple of Hercules at Erythrae.‡ Samuel Wahl, whose idea was that the gold-digging ants were hyenas, in the face of this passage of Pliny, is driven to defend his theory in the following language:—"The horns mentioned by Pliny as belonging to an animal which, to judge from the descriptions of ancient writers, cannot have had horns, may be accounted for by supposing that they belonged to a rare species, or to an individual that was a *monstrum*, as sometimes occurs with other hornless animals: but I am inclined to the belief that the passage of Pliny is corrupt, and that *cornua* we ought to read *coria* or prepared hides, or else that *cornua* should be taken in the sense of teeth, as in the case of elephants."§

My own wholly different interpretation of this passage of Pliny will, I hope, be considered more probable one. It rests upon a conjecture long since formed by me upon the dress of the Tibetan miners, but which has developed,

thanks to the testimony of an eye-witness, into a certainty. It is to Mrs. Frederick Severin that I am indebted for a piece of information which has been of the greatest value to me in my researches into the tradition of the gold-digging ants. Mrs. Severin is married to a Danish gentleman who has for many years been the proprietor of a tea-plantation in Assam bearing the name of 'Grönlund.' She is the daughter of Mr. William Robinson, formerly Inspector of Government Schools in Assam, author of a book on Assam, and of several memoirs on the Tibetan tribes adjoining that district.¶ It was during a visit recently paid by her to Denmark that I obtained from her the information I had so long sought.

The province of Assam, as is well known, is not less remarkable than the Caucasus as the meeting-place of different races. A variety of tribes flock thither from the most distant quarters,—from the west the Aryan Hindus, from the south the Trans-Gangetic Hindus, from the East the Chinese, and from the north the Tibetans, who inhabit the adjoining district of Bhutan, or, as they themselves call it, Lhopato. On one occasion when Mr. Robinson made a tour in Upper Assam, he took with him his daughter, then only fourteen years of age, to visit a family friend, Colonel Holroyd, who held an important government appointment in the district. Colonel Holroyd took occasion to present to his guests some Tibetans who had just crossed the Himalaya clothed in their strange costume, and Miss Robinson was able to satisfy herself that there are Tibetans who wear Yak skins with the horns attached and projecting from their heads. We may fairly conclude that it is to this costume of the Tibetans that allusion is made in the *Mahābhārata*, when it speaks of the "hairy, horned Kankas" who brought presents to king Yudhishtira. These Kankas we know for certain to have been the inhabitants of Eastern Tibet.¶ And there can be little doubt that this characteristic Tibetan head-dress was in view in the story told to those who visited the temple of Erythrae, a story

* Probably the skin of *Felis uncia*, the ounce, the snow-leopard of sportsmen, common in Tibet.—Ed.

† Strabo, XV. 1; Arrian, *Indica*, c. 15.

‡ Pliny, *Hist. Nat.* xi. 30.

§ Wahl, *Erdbeschreibung von Ostindien*, II. 434-5.

¶ *A Descriptive Account of Assam*, Calc. 1841, &c.; Robinson's *Notes in Jour. As. Soc. Beng.* vol. XVIII. pt. i. pp. 183-237, 310-349; vol. XX. pp. 126-187; vol. XXIV. pp. 207-324.

¶ *Résumé in Mém. de l'Institut Royal*, VIII. (1827) pp. 111, 113, 126; Lassen, *Ind. Alt.* I. 374, 1023.

which appeared to savour in so high a degree of the marvellous, and according to which the pair of horns preserved as a great treasure in the temple had once belonged to a gold-digging ant.

For us this story partakes no longer of the marvellous. The 'gold-digging ants' were originally neither, as the ancients supposed, real

ants, nor, as so many eminent men of learning have supposed, larger animals mistaken for ants on account of their appearance and subterranean habits, but men of flesh and blood, and those men Tibetan miners, whose mode of life and dress were in the remotest antiquity exactly what they are at the present day.

THE DVALĀSHARĀYA.

(Continued from p. 111.)

The Ninth Sarga.

After subduing Hammuk, Bhima went against Chedideśa, conquering the Rājas as he went. Secretly the warriors of Bhima attacked the towns of several rājas. When he heard of Bhimā's approach, the Rāja of Chedi collected an army of Bhīllas and Mlecchas, but he considered long whether he should fight with Bhima the unconquered, or should come to an agreement with him. Meanwhile his horsemen and foot advanced, ready for the fight, and the *naubat* and other instruments sounded. Bhima had a servant named Dāmodar, whom he sent to the Rāja of Chedi to say that if he would arrange to pay a tribute he would not attack him. Dāmodar went to the Chedi Rāja's court: that Rāja's teeth were white as if they had been washed by the washerman; he had no *pān* in his mouth, but Dāmodar had *pān*, *supāri*, and *camphor* in his mouth, so that it looked very beautiful, his teeth appearing red.* Dāmodar said: "The Rāja of Daśārṇavadeśa serves my rāja; Bhima has also subdued the Rāja of Kāśī, conquering and slaying him in battle. You should come to Bhima and say to him, 'I have heard much of your fame, how the Rāja of Gajabāṇdhadeśa, Bhadrabhat by name, coming from a distant country, submitted to you, and that he dwells with you peaceably, having presented elephants, &c. So also Yaṇtri Rāja, throwing away his arms, paid obeisance; the Rāja of Kaliṅga also, named Taṇṭika, also Nanti, Ganti, Hanti, Wanti, Manti—all know your fame. The Rāja of Ayodhya, who never at any time paid tax, even he gave you the treasure that the Rāja of Goddeśa had given to him. Your fame is greater than Sahasrārjuna's of old: you are therefore styled Rājādhirāja; and I am thus pleased to be

friendly with you.' Thus should you say or else agree to fight."

The Chedideśa Rāja replied: "Of old very famous rājas have been born in this Chandravaṇśa, as Pururavā and Nahusha, Bharata, Janamejaya. In like manner to the present time these Chandravaṇśa Rājas are of great fame. Of this race at present, Bhima is great in exploits, and he subdues all rājas under him: therefore to be friends with a good man is good, but if I be friendly with him people will blame me, and say that it was because I was not able to fight that I made friends. Never mind! Dāmodar, it is my good fortune that you have come to my court: I will give you these elephants, do you present them on my behalf to Bhima; also this horse that travels more swiftly than the wind. This *maṇḍapikā* (?), which I took from Bhoja Rāja of Mālwa, do you present to Bhima."

Thus spoke Karna the Rāja of Chedideśa, to the Vakil Dāmodar: "Take also this gold *Mera* upon your camel for an offering to Bhima, and tell him to return home knowing me to be his friend. Manage the matter so that Bhima may be altogether pleased with me." Dāmodar said he would do as directed, and then making obeisance he left the court, taking the presents with him. When Dāmodar reached Bhima, Bhimā's ministers confirmed the arrangement he had made. Bhima having thus conquered returned to Pāṭṭan. The city was adorned for his entry, and the people walked about dressed in holiday attire.

In Bhima's reign his subjects suffered no calamity such as fires, or attacks on the town by plundering enemies.

Bhima had a son named Kshemarāja and another named Karṇa, and Kshemarāja had a son named Devaprasāda.

* So much for Indian taste!

Afterwards as Mularāja and others, in the desire of paradise, went to perform penances, in like manner Bhima too said to Kshemarāja : "Do you manage the kingdom, and I will go to perform penances." Kshemarāja refused, saying, "I will not separate from you, but will myself accompany you to do penance." Then Bhima and Kshemarāja together seated Karṇa on the throne, and Bhima went to *Scarga* (A.D. 1073).

Afflicted at his separation from Bhima, Kshemarāja retired to a pure place called *Muṇḍikeśvara*, near the village of *Dahisthala*, on the banks of the *Sarasvatī*, and there performed penances. Then Karṇa Rāja gave this village of *Dadhisthala* to the *Kuṇvarji Devaprasāda*, that he might attend upon Kshemarāja in his penances there.

Karṇa Rāja too, making *mulkgist*, kept all rājas under his subjection. Once a *chobdār* informed Karṇa Rāja that a portrait-painter who had travelled in many countries had arrived, and stood at the door, waiting permission to appear in his presence. On the rāja's order the painter entered the court and sat down, making obeisance, and said : "O Rāja, your fame has travelled into many countries, therefore many people think of you and are desirous of seeing you. I too have been for long so desirous." Then the painter exhibited to the king a roll with paintings on it. There *Lakshmi* was represented dancing before the rāja, and there was painted a maiden much more beautiful than *Lakshmi*. When the rāja saw it he praised the maiden's beauty exceedingly. He inquired of what race the maid was, and the painter answered : "There is in the Dekhan a city named *Chandrapur*; the king thereof is *Jāyakeśi* : * this maid is his daughter the princess *Mayāṇalladevi*, in the bloom of youth. Many princes wish to wed her, but she accepts of none. Her attendant told her that the flower of her age was passing away, and that she should accept a husband : then the maid began to worship *Gauri*, to obtain a bridegroom full of qualities. The *Banddhā Jatis* too, that shave the hair of their heads and their beards, having painted portraits of many royal princes, showed them to the princess. Afterwards some unskilled painter who came to Chan-

drapur exhibited your portrait to this princess, who, when she saw it, agreed to marry you. When she sees birds flying from this direction, she asks them if they are come from Rāja Karṇa : she refuses to eat or drink, and because her desire to marry you is not speedily gratified she is grieved. For this reason the maiden has sent me privately to your presence. She has sworn that she will have no other bridegroom, and *Jayakeśi Rāja* also has authorized my coming." Having thus spoken, the painter presented the gifts of gold, jewels, &c. which *Jayakeśi* had sent. Karṇa received them, and great eagerness to marry this damsel arose in his mind. The painter said, moreover, that his Rāja *Jayakeśi*, knowing Karṇa to be a great *Mahārāja*, had sent an elephant as a present, which he prayed might be accepted. Karṇa agreed and asked where the elephant was : he was told it was in the garden. He went out privately to see it, and after having examined it, went on into the garden, where he saw a very beautiful woman. He considered whether this was not the same whose portrait he had seen in the roll. The Rāja asked her attendant who the lady was. She answered that her father's race was called *Kādamba*, and that she was the princess the daughter of *Jayakeśi*, Rāja of the Dekhan, who had come thither with the desire of marrying him,—having taken an oath that if otherwise, she would burn herself. Karṇa said he would marry the lady and make her his *Pat Rānī*. They went into the city, and the marriage was performed according to the usual custom. The person of the bride was stained with *hanku* ; salt was waved over the heads of bride and bridegroom and cast away.

The Tenth Sarga.

Thus the Rāja married *Mayāṇalladevi*, and bestowed great honour upon her. Afterwards Karṇa Rāja, having no son, was very sad, and he used to go to the temple of *Lakshmi* and there pray for a son. The Guru taught him a *mantra* of *Lakshmi*'s, which he continued repeating, refraining from food and drink and women, and sleeping on the ground and performing all this observance privately, unknown to any. He also offered *homa* of *tila* and *ghā*, &c., to *Lakshmi*, and worshipped her, presenting *balīda*, the lotus, &c., also keeping

his eyes fixed on the point of his nose, with a string of beads in his hand, telling them and reflecting on the Nirākār Deva. Next day, though it was not the rainy season, rain fell plentifully; the sun went down and it was night: then a band of Apsarasas dressed in ornaments came to the temple of Lakshmi and began to dance. One of them seating herself near Karṇa began to play the *viṇā*; another danced before him and to incite him to amorousness sported in dalliance and spoke to excite him. When with all these means they could not distract Karṇa from his abstraction, the Apsarasas, seated in a chariot, returned to the skies. Next a very terrible man, with his hair tied in a *jathā*, approached Karṇa and said: "I am a Daitya, an enemy of the Devatas; I am come to slay you though you speak not: behold this weapon which I hold drawn over you." Though he attempted to terrify him by many other means also, yet Karṇa abandoned not his meditation nor opened his eyes. When Lakshmi saw such steadfastness in Karṇa she was astonished and began to shake her head. The *chobdharānī* entreated the Devī to protect Karṇa who showed such steadfastness. Then the Devī said to Karṇa: "O Rāja! with you I am pleased; therefore will I assuage all your calamities, and your order shall be obeyed even in *Sarga*." Then Karṇa in many ways entreated Lakshmi, and said: "O Devī! Indra too is your servant, and whoever pleases you continues to want nothing. If therefore, O Devī! you are pleased with me, grant me a son." Then the Devī replied: "O Rāja! such a son shall be yours as shall cause your fame to increase." Thus saying the Devī vanished. Then was Karṇa very glad, and with his Rānī began to worship Lakshmi continually. The great chiefs, hearing of this *vardān*, came with joy to visit Karṇa, bringing presents with them. When Karṇa left the temple of Lakshmi to go to the court, the city was adorned and a great festival was held.

*The Eleventh Sarga.**

The Rāja and Rānī with great joy going into the garden feasted from one plate... The Rānī conceived, and the *homa* offering was performed for her protection. The *Gorānī* instructed the Rānī to speak gently, to be careful not

to fasten her clothes too tightly... to abstain from liquor of all kinds, not to walk too much... The Rānī gave birth to a son very beautiful and of great splendour. The *Joshis* were sent for, and the *jaundhishkar* caused to be constructed. The *Joshis* declared that this child was an *avatār* of some Deva, and would be of numerous exploits, slaying Daityas, and performing other deeds of a Deva, causing to cease the obstructions that the Daityas offered to religious worship. To these astrologers Karṇa Rāja presented cows and lands. On account of the Kuāvara's birth, he caused the city to be adorned and a great festival to be held. Many musicians played and sang songs; to scholars and others Karṇa made gifts, and ordered that fishermen and the like should that day abstain from destroying life: he released prisoners, even those who had committed great offences. Afterwards the elder ladies of the family bestowed on the Kuāvara the name of *Jayasīṇha*.

That day Karṇa did not dine until he had fed little children. Afterwards when the Kuāvara grew up he began to play on the banks of the *Sarasvatī*, and to practise in different games. He learnt the art of pugilism thoroughly, also to use the thirty-six kinds of weapons. When *Jayasīṇha* became a young man he began to worship Śiva. Then said Karṇa to *Jayasīṇha*: "Do you now take this burthen of royalty, and I, according to the custom of our ancestors, will perform penance for the good of my soul." *Jayasīṇha* replied: "In your lifetime I will not rule, for my fame in the world would be thus spoilt. I have no desire for royalty now, but will serve you." Karṇa said: "I am now old, and therefore must of necessity prepare to go to *Sarga*. Do you, therefore, accept this burthen of rule." Karṇa added that obedience to parents and Gurus was the best service, and that for this reason *Jayasīṇha* should obey his order. Thus importuning him, Karṇa took *Jayasīṇha* by the hand and placed him on the golden throne: then, calling for the *Gor* with a golden cup and a *śashk* filled with water, he caused *Jayasīṇha* to be anointed and *homa* to be performed. A voice was then heard from the sky saying, "This *Jayasīṇha* shall conquer all *Rākshasas*

* The earlier part of this has been abridged as unfit for publication.

and Rājas and shall be very famous [A. D. 1093.]

On this occasion Karna was filled with joy, and gave advice to Jayasīṃha to protect Brāhmanas and all the four *varṇas* (castes) according to the practice of their forefathers, and begged him to extend favour to his (Karna's) brother's son Devaprasāda. Then Karna, fixing his thoughts on Viṣṇu, went to Indrapura.

Jayasīṃha then performed the funeral rites for his father, feasting Brāhmanas of good character.

When Devaprasāda heard that Karna had gone to *Svarga*, he came to Jayasīṃha and said: "This is my son Tribhuvanapāla; treat him as your own son: he is a worshipper of all the (*ṣaṭdāśana*) six Darśanas." Having thus said, and having prepared a pyre on the banks of the Sarasvatī, Devaprasāda burnt himself alive, to follow Karna.

Then Jayasīṃha kept Tribhuvanapāla near himself, and in battle Tribhuvanapāla placed himself before Jayasīṃha.

Jayasīṃha conquered the whole earth as far as the ocean, and performed sacrifices.

The Twelfth Sarga.

After this Jayasīṃha practised the hearing of the *Dharmasūtras*. One day the Rishis said to him: "O Rāja! the Rākshasas come to Siddhapur, causing annoyance, and destroy the place: we suffer from great terror there, and are not able to sleep in peace. The Rākshasas have broken down the temple of Svayambhūmāhākāla deva at the Śrīsthala tīrtha (Siddhapur), where you wash the Brāhmanas' feet. They are as wicked as Lavana, Rākshasa, and have now come and settled at Śrīsthala. Even a child of the Chālukya race could protect us: do you therefore so defend us." Jayasīṃha replied: "O munis! I am greatly ashamed to hear of this matter. On Kṣhapātādhīpa's* doing you so much mischief why did you not at once make the matter known to me? My servants too told me nothing of the matter. I regard it as much better to die fighting among great rājas than to die of disease. This sword is as the ornament of my arm: it will be well if it be stained with the blood of the Rākshasas." Then Jayasīṃha took an army with him and

went with the devotees to Śrīsthala to destroy the Rākshasas.

The Senāpatīs of Jayasīṃha were of high families and great reputation, and therefore were not such as would turn back in fight. Jayasīṃha halted on the banks of the Sarasvatī, and a Rākshasa seeing Jayasīṃha's army went to Bārbār (or Bārbārāk) and told him. Then Barbarak ordered his army† to engage: the Rākshasas, therefore, seizing their arms, gnashing their teeth, advanced to the battle. When the Rākshasas came to fight at the Sarasvatī river, a great storm of wind arose, which was for them an evil omen. Then the earth began to quake, and the Rākshasas were despondent, foreboding evil. At the orders of their lord, the Rākshasas cast stones, fire, wood, &c. on Jayasīṃha's army. These Rākshasas were stout and strong of body, and all joined in close fight and were not scattered, and they were expert in warding off the arrows which Jayasīṃha's men shot at them. On account of their strength, the army of Jayasīṃha fled backward in such confusion that they stopped not to pick up their clothes that fell: therefore were they ashamed and abandoned the hope of victory. As they ran and fell, some lost their teeth, others had their knees broken, and no one knew what to do next. Then Jayasīṃha, desirous of fame, called to his warriors: "O warriors! flying from death whither will you go? Wherever you go death will some day reach you: therefore if you die fighting in this battle with your faces to the enemy, your fame will increase." Thus saying, Jayasīṃha too, seizing weapons himself, went forwards. He added: "Should you fall in fight you will go to *Svarga*, if you run away you will go to *Naraka*." Then did the warriors make a stand against the flesh-eating Rākshasas. And now Chāraṇas with their *vāṇas*, chaunting verses, proclaimed the fame of the warriors.

When Jayasīṃha's army thus advanced to the attack, Barbar in person attacked Jayasīṃha. The Rāja of *Āntardhana dēśa*'s younger brother was on Barbar's side. Now Jayasīṃha and Barbar began to fight: Jayasīṃha wounded him and bound his hands. The wife of Barbar, by name Pīṅgalikā, thought that her husband would now be slain, so coming to Jayasīṃha, with great humility she entreated,

* The king of the Rākshasas.

† This seems to allude to some Muslim invader.

saying, "O Rāja! you have made this Barbar a prisoner, therefore you have conquered and he is defeated. Many evil deeds has this Barbar done in a pure land, and this is punishment he receives because of it. Therefore, now, Barbar

will no more do evil, and will leave the Brāhmanas in peace, wherefore do spare him." When he heard these entreaties he released Barbar and returned to his own place at Paṭṭān.

(To be continued.)

PERSONAL NAMES IN THE SOUTHERN PART OF THE AHMADĀBĀD COLLECTORATE.

BY C. E. G. CHAWFORD, B.O. C.S., GOGHĀ.

The following classification is based on the names found in the compiler's *Criminal and Supplementary Returns* for the past thirteen months. It is therefore necessarily imperfect and entirely tentative, and does not make the slightest pretence to contain either all the names in use, or all the castes which use the names it gives. Probably, too, there are many mistakes. The compiler, according to his dim lights, has arranged the names he has collected in four classes, as follows:—

A. Names mostly drawn from mythology and mainly common to all Hindus, but chiefly in use among the high castes and artizans. These only appear in the lists when also used by the lower castes, as in their high-caste use they are well known.

B. Names mainly local, used by all, but chiefly by Rājput and by the lower castes.

C. Names used in one caste only.

D. Names used by the lower castes only.

In the lists the specifications of castes are only meant to show the uses which have come under the compiler's observation, without implying that other uses are non-existent.

Of affixes, *lāl*, *chānd*, *rām*, *dās*, are high-caste; *jī* is universal, *bhāi* and *sing* are chiefly used by the Rājput Grāsīs; aspiring Kolis also use *sing*, or *saṅg* as it is locally pronounced. The diminutives *lāl*, *dāl*, *iyāl* are usually appended to the names of Kolis, Dheds, Wāghris, and the like by members of other castes; *lāl* is used for boys.

Only such Musalmān names are given as are plainly Hindu. These are found very numerous among the Molesālām Grāsīs, and point to the imperfect character of their Muhammadanism.

In many cases final *o* is represented by *ā* in these lists; it often appears before an affix.

A

Āmbā-lāl, Ksh.*-rām, Kaṇ. Āmbaidās, So. Ānād, Khojā; -rām, Br. Āṇḍā, Ko. Kuṁ. Arjān, Wāg. Ko. R. Kuṁ. Sūtār; -lāl, Br. Bāpu-bhāi, Gr.; -miān, -sāheb, Mol. Bechar, Wāg. Ko. Jogī, Bhaṁsār, W. Kaṇ. Kuṁ.; -sing, -ji, Gr. Bhagwān, Ko. Darzi, Br. Kuṁ. R. Bhagā, Bhagn, Ko. Chāran. Bhawān, Kaṇ. Rāwāliya. R. W. Ko. Mus. Bhimā, Bhim, Ko. Kāth. Bh. R. Kāth. Kuṁ.; -ji, Gr. Bhupat-sing, Gr. Chhagan, Ko. Br. Bhurā, W. Chaku, Ko. W. Chūmpā, Kāth.; -si, W. Chelā, Kāth. Wāg. Dh. Chikā, Ko. W. Dādā, Kāth.; -bhāi, Mol. Gr.; -ji, Gr. Dājī, R. Darzi; -bhāi, Gr. Dālā, Ko.; -bhāi, Gr. Dānā, Ko. Kāth. Āh.; -sing, Ko. Dayā, Kaṇ. Devā, Wāg. Kāth. R. Kuṁ. Chamār; -si, -chānd, W.; -shaṅkar, -ji, Br.; -dās, Rabāri. Devi-sing; -Gr. Desā, Āh.; -bhāi, Gr. Dhanā, Kaṇ. Bh. Jogī, Darzi, Ko. Chāran, Kuṁ. Dosā, Ko. R. Kāth.; -bhāi, Gr.; -miān, Mus. Dudhā, Ko. Kaṇ. Kuṁ.; -bhāi, Gr. Dyālā, Bh. Darzi. Gagā, Wāg. Ko. Bhaṁsār. Gagū-bhāi, Mol. Gaṅga-bhāi, Gr. -ji, Gr. Gagal, W. Galā, Ko. Gaṇesh, Kaṇ. Ko. Gokal, Ko. Kuṁ. Gemal-sing, Gr. Ghehelā, Wāg. Kāth. Ko. W. Kaṇ.; -bhāi, Bhārut.

* Abbreviations.

Āh. Āhīr	Kuṁ. Kuṁblāl
Bh. Bhaṁsār	Moh. Meḥman
Br. Brāhman	Mol. Molesālām
Dh. Dhedi	Mus. Musalmān

Gr. Grāsī	R. Rājput
Kaṇ. Kanbi	So. Soni
Kāth. Kāthi	V. Vohra
Ko. Koli	W. Wāgīr
Ksh. Kshatri	Wāg. Wāghri

Gigā, Khoja, Ko. W. Mehman, Kāth. Satār.
 Gopāl, W. ; -siṅg, Gr. Govind, Wāg. Ko. Kum.
 Bh.
 Goyā, Kap. Dh. ; -bhāi, Gr. Hakā, W. Khawās.
 Hālā, Ko. Hamir, R. Ko. Kāth. Āh. ; -ji, Gr. R.
 Hari, Ko. R. Kan. Br. Darzi, W.
 Harji, Ko. W. Kum. Luwāpā. Harkhā, So. ;
 -ji, Kap.
 Hathi-yā, Ko. R. ; -bhāi, Gr.
 Hithi, Ko. Bh. Kāth. ; -ji, R. Hirā, Ko. R. ;
 -ji, Satār.
 Ja-siṅg, R. Ko. W. Kap. ; -chaūd, W. ; -shaikar,
 Br. ; -karan, Ko. ; -rām, Kap. Br.
 Jhaver, Kap. W. Luwāpā. Joitā, Kāth.
 Kalyāp, Ko. W. ; -siṅg, Gr.
 Karān, Ko. Kap. W. Kum. R.
 Keśav, Ko. Luwār ; -lāl, W. Ksh.
 Khimā, Ko. ; -chaūd, W.
 Khusāl, W. Kap. Kuber, Ko. W. ; -ji, Br.
 Kuṅwarā, Ko. Kap. ; -ji, W. ; -siṅg, Mol.
 Lakhā, Ko. Khawās, Mehman.
 Lakshman, Kāth. Satār, R.
 Lalā, Ko. Mus. Kum. ; -chaūd, W. Laln, So.
 Mādha, Ko. Mādhar-jī, W. ; -siṅg, Gr.
 Maskan, Luwāpā ; -dās, Kap.
 Mathura, Br. W. Māli.
 Mohon-jī, Gr. Moti, Kum. ; -bhāi, Mol. Gr. ;
 -lāl, W.
 Nānā, Nān, Ko. Darzi, So. Kap. Chamār, W. ;
 -bhāi, -ji, Gr.
 Nārā, Bh. Br. Ko. Narsi, Kap. Darzi, Kum.
 Kap. ; -siṅg, Gr.
 Nāthā, Ko. Kum. ; -ji, Mol. Mus. ; -bhāi, Gr.
 Nathu, R. Kāth. Mus. W. Ko. Jogi, Kum. ;
 -rām, Br. ; -bhāi, Gr.
 Parśottam, W. Satār, Kap. Pārvasi-siṅg, R.
 Pitāmbhar, Ko. Luwāpā. Prāg, Kap. Ko.
 Pratāp-siṅg, Gr. Premā-jī, Ko. ; -bhāi, Gr.
 Raghā, Ko. ; -bhāi, Gr. ; -nāth, W.
 Rājā, Ko. ; -bhāi, Gr. Rāje, Mus.
 Rām, Rāmā, Ko. R. Kum. Bhousār, Wāg. Kāth.
 Bhaṅgiyā ; -bhāi, -siṅg, Gr. ; -ji, Ko. Br. ; -ji,
 -siṅg, R. ; -rāo, Chāran ; -chaūdra, Br.
 Ranchoḍ, Ko. R. Kum. ; -ji, Gr. Ratnā, Bh.
 Ko. Rabāri, R.
 Rupā, Ko. ; -siṅg, R. ; -siṅgi, Gr. Sāmbu, Kap.
 Sāmji, So. Luwāpā, Br. Satār. Sāma, R. Kum.
 Trikam, Dh. ; -ji, Br. Viṭhal, Luwāpā, Kap.
 Wanmāli, Satār.

B.

Abhe-siṅg, Gr. ; -chaūd, W. ; -ji, Kāth.
 Adā, Ko. ; -siṅg, Gr. Ālā, Kāth. Bh. Ko.

Ami-jī, Mol. V. ; -chaūd, W.
 Amrā, Kāth. Bh. Ko. ; Amarsi, Satār, Satwārā ;
 -chaūd, W. Bahādar, Ko.
 Bāwā, Kāth. Ko. Bh. Wāg. Kum. ; -ji, Gr. Mol. ;
 -miān, Mus.
 Bhābhā, Ko. R. Bhai-jī, Ko. ; -chaūd, W. Kum.
 Māli ; -ji, R.
 Bhāpā, Kāth. Kap. Ko. Kum. Māli ; -ji, R.
 Bhāikhar-jī, R. Bhāmal, Ko.
 Bhāthi, Ko. Bhāwā, Ko. R.
 Bhayā, So. Kāth. Bhojā, Ko. Kāth.
 Bholā, Luwār ; -bhāi, Gr.
 Hāmā, Bh. ; -bhāi, Gr.
 Harbham, Ko. ; -ji, Gr.
 Himā, Ko. ; -rāj, W.
 Hothi, Bh. Mol.
 Jāgā, Ko. Jagmal, -ji, Mol. Gr.
 Jasā, Ko. R. Jasmat, Ko. Kum. ; -siṅg, Gr.
 Jesā, Ko.
 Jethā, Kap. R. Ko. W. Kum. Kāth. Khaḍak ;
 -sūr, Kāth.
 Jethi, R. Mus. ; -siṅg, -bhāi, Gr. Jhāhālā, Wāg.
 Jhālam, Wāg. ; -siṅg, Gr. Jhīpā, Bh. Mus. Ko. ;
 -bhāi, Gr.
 Jiji-bhāi, Gr. Chāran. Jibāwā, Gr.
 Jivā, Ko. Kāth. Bh. Mus. Kum. ; -bhāi, Gr. ; -rāj,
 Ko. W.
 Jivan, Mus. R. ; -ā, Kāth.
 Jodhā, Ko. R. ; -bhāi, Bhārut.
 Juthā, Kap. Kāth. W. Kābhāi, Ko.
 Kabā, Ko. R.
 Kāhānā, Wāg. Ko. Bh. Kap. Kum. Khawās.
 Kalā, Ko. W. Kum. ; -bhāi, Gr.
 Kālā, Ko. Kāth. Kum.
 Kālū, R. Ko. Mus. ; -bhāi, Gr.
 Kāthad, Kāth. Āh.
 Kaslā, W. Ko. Mus. ; -bhāi, Gr. Kaḍwā, Ko. W.
 Kesā-bhāi, Gr. Kesar, R.
 Kheṅgār-bhāi, Gr.
 Khimā, Ko. Chamār ; -chaūd, W. ; -bhāi, Gr.
 Khoḍā, Ko. W. Luwār, Kap. ; -bhāi, Gr.
 Kikā, W. ; -bhāi, Gr. Kuṃpā, Kāth.
 Lādha, Kum.
 Ladha, W. ; -bhāi, Gr.
 Lākhā, R. Ko. Bh. Kum. Kāth. Chāran.
 Lūpā, Ah. Luṃvir, Kāth.
 Mādan, Ko. Kum.
 Mānā, Ko. ; -siṅg, R. Ko. ; -sūr, Kāth.
 Maṣru, Ko. Kāth.
 Māwā, Ko. R. Kum. ; -ji, W. Satār, Kap. ;
 -siṅgi, -bhāi, Gr.
 Meghā, Ko. Chamār, Bhaṅgiyā ; -rājji, -bhāi, Gr.

Mepā, Ko.; -ji, Gr. Merān, Ko. Kāth.
 Merā-bhāi, Gr.; -ji, R.
 Mulu, Ko.; -bhāi, Gr. Mol. }
 Mulā, Ko.; -ji, Ko. Lawār; -chaūd, W. }
 Nājā, Wāg. Ko. Bh. Kāth. Rabāri.
 Nūg, Kāth. Bh.; -ji, W. Ko.; -jaṇ, Kāth.
 Nann, Chāran. Oghāḍ, Kāth. R.
 Pāthā-bhāi, Gr.
 Pathā, Ko. Pathu, Ko.; -bhāi, Gr.
 Petā, Kum. Chāran. Phate, Mus.; -siṅg, Gr.
 Phulā-ji, W. Mol.
 Puñjā, Ko. Kum. Kāth. R. Rabāri, Jogi; -bhāi,
 Gr.
 Rāyā, Kan. Kāth. Ko.; -bhāi, Gr.
 Rāsū, Khawās, Ko.; -bhāi, Gr.
 Rawā-bhāi, Gr. Rewā, Ko.
 Ruḍā, Bh. Jogi, Ko.; -bhāi, Gr.
 Rukhāḍ, Ko. Kāth.
 Sadā, Jogi. Sādul, Ko. Ah. Kāth.
 Sāmtā, Sāmat, Ko. Kāth.
 Sawā, Ko. Bhaṅgiyā, Bhaṅsār.
 Śangā, Ko.; -ji, W.; -jibhāi, Gr.
 Śibhāi, Ko. Somā, Ko.
 Surā, Ko. Kāth. Rabāri; -siṅg, Ko.
 Tejā, W. Ko. Bh. Kum.; -bhāi, Gr.
 Ukā, Wāg. Dh. Ko. W. Kaṇ.
 Wūghā, R. Ko. Kum.; -ji, W.; -bhāi, Gr.
 Wāhālā, Ko.; -ji, W. Wajā, Bh. Ko.
 Waju, Ko.; -bhāi, Gr.
 Wakhtā, R.; -bhāi, Gr.
 Vāsrām, Ko. Darzi, Chāran, Kum. R. Satār.
 Wāsā, Ko. Wastā, Ko. Khadāk.
 Vehelā, Kāth. Ko.; -si, W. Vikamsi, Kāth.
 Virā, Ko. R. Satār, Kāth. Kum.; -siṅg, -ji, Ko.;
 -sal, Chāran.
 Viśā, Ko.; -bhāi, Gr.

C.

(a.) *Kāthi*.—Alaiyā, Alek, Chomla, Daśa,
 Devit, Godaḍ, Golaṇ, Harsur, Hebhal, Jādrā,
 Lomā, Māchā, Māmaiya, Mātrā, Mehā, Mokā,
 Pomlā, Oḍhā, Rāniṅg, Selār, Surāṅg, Thebā,
 Unal, Viśāman, Wāskur.

(b.) *Grāsīd*.—Agarsīṅg, Amābhāi, Anubhāi,
 Ātābhāi, Bāliābhāi, Bāpji, Depālji, Goḍbhāi,

Hagābhāi, Hālubhāi, Hanubhāi, Jagubhāi, Jamā-
 bhāi, Kamābhāi, Kasalsīṅg, Kayābhāi, Khumān-
 siṅg, Madārsīṅg, Manubhā, Moḍbhāi, Nārsīṅgji,
 Phaljiābhāi, Prabhātsīṅg, Sartānsīṅg, Satābhāi,
 Takhtsiṅg, Warsābhāi, Vijābhāi, Vikābhāi.

(c.) *Molesaldm* (names not *primā facie* Ma-
 salmān).—Abuji, Ajābhāi, Akubhā, Gumānbhā,

(d.) *Koli*.—Aprub, Bhalā, Chanthiyā, Choṇ-
 ḍā, Kākal, Kāwā, Ramtu, Rayā, Sārā, Surbān,
 Takhā, Warsi.

(e.) *Kaṇbi*.—Wāsaṇ.

(f.) *Wāniyā*.—Dhārsi, Hānsrāj.

D.

Ambā, Ko. Kum.	Mālā, Ko. Bh. Wāg. Kum.
Bijal, Wāg. Ko.	Mangā, Ko.
Rabāri.	
Boghā, Ko. Jogi,	Mithā, Ko.
Wāg. Kum.	
Butā, Bh. Ko.	Pānchā, Ko. Bh. Kum.
Gāndī, Ko.	Parmā, Kum.
Gobar, Ko. Ah. Kum.	Punā, Ko. Jogi, Bh.
Hājā, Ko.	Rāghā, Bh. Ko.
Jhuñjhā, Wāg. Bhañ. Sagram, Ko. Bh.	
giyā.	
Khetā, Ko.	Thobhaṇ, Wāg. Ko. Satār.
Maghā, Ko. Satār.	

Such uncomplimentary names as Gāndī and
 Jūthā may be given to denote the qualities of
 their bearers. In one instance I had a name
 before me which was certainly due to such a
 cause,—a deaf and dumb Bharwād boy was
 called Mugā.

I have been able to collect but the following
 female names:—

Ajubā, Gr.; Ambā, So.; Bājirāj, Gr.; Bālubā,
 Gr.; Dhanubā, Gr.; Jādji, W.; Jhijā, Ko.;
 Jekor, Br.; Lādu, Ko.; Lakshmi, Ko. W.; Lā-
 khu, Ko.; Mājibā, Gr.; Me, Ah.; Moighi, Gr.;
 Nānibā, Gr.; Pāmbā, Gr.; Pān, Ko.; Pārati,
 W.; Phaibā, Gr.; Phul, Kum.; Pūn, Ko. W.;
 Pūnji, Ko.; Rūdhā, Kum.; Rājū, Kum.; Sham-
 bā, Gr.; Sujābā, Gr.; Tājubā, Gr.; Uji, Br.;
 Walu, Ko.

THE GIRNĀR MĀHĀTMYA.

BY RĀMCHANDRA G. ANGAL, B.A., JUNĀGADH.

About thirty chapters in the *Prabhāsa Khanda*
 are allotted to the description of Girnār
 and the holy places about it. The account
 relates rather to the sanctity of the place than to

its topography,—consisting of various mythical
 stories related by Śiva to his wife Pārvatī. It
 is the common practice of Hindu writers of
 mythology to put stories and descriptions into

the mouth of some god, Śiva being generally chosen for this purpose,—evidently with a view to bestow on their account that respect which it would otherwise want; and the author of the *Prabhāsa Khanda* has, in the *Girnār Māhātmya*, conformed to the rule of his brethren. Throughout the whole of it one cannot but notice the attempt made to exalt Śiva above all other gods, even above Viṣṇu.

Though the stories are related by Śiva, their subjects are often incidents in his own past life and that of Pārvatī his wife, who is his hearer; and we find Śiva sometimes quoting dialogues held previously between gods or sages.

According to the *Girnār Māhātmya*, *Prabhāsa Kṣhetra* is the holiest of all places of Hindu sanctity, and it is curious enough to note that *Girnār*, or *Vastrāpatha*, as it is called, is said to be holier than *Prabhāsa* by as much as a barleycorn. Many of the chief Hindu gods and heroes have their names connected with the numerous places of sanctity in *Vastrāpatha*. The gods have consented to reside here permanently, and the heroes have performed pilgrimages to *Girnār*.

The priests who are to officiate in the ceremonies of pilgrimages are the *Girnār Brāhmaṇas*. Their ministry is strictly enjoined on the pilgrim. The number of this class of *Brāhmaṇas* in *Kāṭhiāwāḍ* is considerable, and a peculiar sanctity attaches to them. It appears from the *Prabhāsa Khanda* that they did not originally dwell in *Kāṭhiāwāḍ*. Their first abode, as stated in the *Girnār Māhātmya*, was at the foot of the *Himālayas*.

The general name for the holy places about *Girnār* is *Vastrāpatha*. It is not now in general use, but the following story relates how it came to have this name:—

‘One day Śiva and Pārvatī were sitting together in *Kailāsa*, when the latter inquired of Śiva, ‘My lord, will you kindly tell me by what kind of devotion, by what kind of charity, by what charms, what adventures and what works you are propitiated by men?’ Śiva said, ‘I am pleased with those who are kind to all creatures, who always tell the truth, never commit adultery, and always stand in the front in a field of battle.’ The discourse had arrived at this stage when *Brahma* and other gods came to *Kailāsa*; *Viṣṇu* was also among them. *Viṣṇu* said to Śiva, ‘You always give boons to *Dāityas*,

which greatly interferes with the proper performance of my duty of protecting. By the boons granted by you the *Dāityas* are enabled to harass mankind. Moreover you are propitiated with a trifling service. Such being the case, who will undertake to perform my duties?’ Śiva said in reply, ‘It is my natural habit to be pleased at once, and it shall never be abandoned. However, if you do not like it, I walk away.’ So saying, Śiva left *Kailāsa* and instantly disappeared. Pārvatī said she could not live without Śiva: thereupon all the gods, together with Pārvatī, set out in search of him. Śiva having arrived at the *Vastrāpatha Kṣhetra* cast off his garments, and divesting himself of his bodily form became invisible and dwelt there. The gods and Pārvatī also arrived soon after at the *Vastrāpatha*, pursuing their search after Śiva. *Viṣṇu* sent away his vehicle (*Garuḍa*) and took a seat on the mountain of *Raivata*. Pārvatī took a seat on the top of the *Ujiyānta* (*Girnār*). The king of serpents also came thither by a subterranean path. The *Gangā* and other rivers also came by the same way. The gods, choosing different spots, seated themselves there. Pārvatī then from the top of *Girnār* began to sing the praises of Śiva, who was therewith greatly delighted, and graciously showed his form to Pārvatī and the gods. Pleased at seeing him, all the gods requested *Mahādeva* to return to *Kailāsa*, and *Mahādeva* consented to do so on condition that Pārvatī, the gods, and the *Gangā* and other rivers agreed to remain in *Vastrāpatha*. They all did so, whereupon *Mahādeva*, leaving a part of his essence there, went to *Kailāsa*. Pārvatī also did the same. *Viṣṇu* from that time has continued to reside on the *Raivata* mountain, and Pārvatī or *Ambā* has dwelt on the top of the *Ujiyānta*.

This extract shows how the *Kṣhetra* received the name of *Vastrāpatha* from the circumstance of Śiva’s casting off his *vastra* or garments when he repaired thither, incensed at the offence given by *Viṣṇu*. We also see the supreme importance attached to Śiva. We make the following extract, which also tends to exalt the position of that deity:—

‘Once upon a time in ages gone by, *Brahma*’s night came on, and the three gods *Brahma*, *Viṣṇu*, and Śiva were re-united in one being or person, and the whole world came to an end. Afterwards, *Brahma*’s day again began, and the

three gods again came into a state of separate existence. Brahma undertook the work of creation, Vishnu applied himself to the task of protecting, and Śiva promised to attend to his work of destroying. Brahma then created Dakṣa-prajāpati and the seven Lokas or regions. One day Brahma, Vishnu, Śiva, and other gods happened to go to Mount Kailāsa, where a dispute soon arose between Brahma and Śiva as to superiority,—Brahma said he was superior to Śiva, who also set up a like claim to preëminence. A great altercation ensued, and the quarrel ran to such a pitch that Śiva was on the point of inflicting a blow on Brahma with his trident, when Vishnu interfered and persuaded Brahma to acknowledge Śiva's superiority, telling him the following story:—'When I and you did not exist, Śiva lay asleep in the ocean, and when he willed to create he first created you. I was then created by you at his bidding. It was due to the grace of Śiva that I assumed the form of a tortoise and protected the whole world. You ought therefore to propitiate Śiva.' When Brahma heard this from Vishnu, he prayed to Śiva, who, being thereby graciously pleased with him, bade him ask for a boon. Brahma said, 'My lord, under your grace, I create the universe, and I am thence styled Pitāmaha, or grandfather. Favour me with such a boon that I may be able to create you.' Vishnu approved and recommended this request of Brahma to Śiva. Śiva approved and granted it, and then disappeared. Vishnu also went to his abode. Brahma then brought the three *Vedas* again into existence, and as soon he had revived the fourth, the *Atharva Veda*, there came out from his mouth Śiva, having half his body like that of a man, and the other half like that of a woman (*Ardhāśārī*). When Brahma saw Śiva, he begged him to resolve himself into separate persons. Śiva did so accordingly, and besides produced from his body eleven other forms. The woman asked Brahma what she was to do. Brahma told her that she should take birth from Dakṣa-prajāpati and be born his daughter. She accordingly did so, and became the daughter of Dakṣa, who, by the order of Brahma, married her to Śiva. Brahma then begged Śiva that he should undertake the work of creation. Śiva said that he would confine himself to his own work of destroying, and that Brahma had better keep the creation in his own hands; and Brahma agreed.'

The story proceeds to relate how Śiva was insulted by his father-in-law Dakṣa, in that he was not invited to a sacrifice performed by Dakṣa, and how Śiva caused his destruction.

The following extract relates to the sanctity of the *Vastrapātha Kshetra*:—

'There ruled formerly in a certain country a king whose name was Gaja. In the decline of life he entrusted the government of his kingdom to his son, and repaired to the banks of the Gaṅgā with his wife, and dwelt there. After some time there came to the banks of the river a sage named Bhadrā, accompanied by a large number of other sages. The sage, having bathed in the waters of the Gaṅgā, sat down on the bank for meditation and devotion. The Rāja happened to see him, and was tempted to go near him. The Rāja was rejoiced to see him, and requested the sage to honour his house by a visit. The sage consented, and went to the Rāja's abode. The Rāja and his wife worshipped him, and, seating themselves before him with joined palms, they entreated Bhadrā with great humility to show them the way to salvation. They said: 'O sage, mankind are wandering in a maze of life and death, being deceived by the temptations of the world. Will your holiness oblige the world by pointing out a way by which eternal bliss may be secured?' The sage replied: 'The world abounds with many sacred rivers, such as the Gaṅgā, and abodes of Vishnu and Śiva. But they bestow eternal bliss when people bathe in the rivers and visit the places at particular seasons. But the *Vastrapātha Kshetra* grants to the pilgrim everlasting happiness in heaven at whatever time he chooses to go there. I was once on a tour to the sacred places and I happened to see Vishnu. He told me I need not bother myself with visiting all the sacred places,—that I should only pay a visit to Dāmodar and bathe in the waters of the Dāmodar Kuṇḍa, and that when I had done that, there should be nothing left for me to do. I have accordingly visited that sacred place.' When the Rāja heard this he said, 'Reverend sire, it is my desire to know in what country the *Vastrapātha Kshetra* is situated, and what rivers, what mountains, and what forests there are in it.' The sage replied: 'The land which contains the *Kshetra* is surrounded by the sea. It contains many large towns. There is a mountain named *Ujiyānta* near

Bhavanātha, and to the west of it the mountain of Raivataka, from whose golden top rises a river which is called Svarṇarekhā. The summits of the mountain look like huge elephants. Birds of various kinds amuse the pilgrim with their sweet melody. Many persons are engaged in digging in the mines for metal. Nala, Nṛiga, Nahusha, Yayāti, Dhruvumāra, Bharata, and Bhagiratha have, by the performance of sacrifices there, attained everlasting celestial happiness. The river Svarṇarekhā has its origin in Pātāla. The king of serpents also came from Pātāla, through the channel of the river, to visit the god Dāmodar. Sāmba, Pradyumna, and other Yādavas dwell in the Kshetra, with their wives and children, and protect it with their countless forces. Their wives bestow large charities on Brāhmanas. There is a tank or kuṇḍa near Dāmodar, constructed by Revati which goes by the name of Raivataka. There is also another holy tank called Brāhma Kuṇḍa, where the god Dāmodar comes to bathe at noon every day. Any one who erects a temple of five stones in this kshetra can thereby obtain the happiness of heaven for five thousand years. The period of happiness varies according to the size of the temple built. Around the Raivataka is a plain four miles in extent, which is called Antargraha Kshetra. It is of the highest sanctity. Its water possesses the property of dissolving the bones of dead bodies, and on that account it is termed Viliyaka. There dwell also many ascetics, who by practising austerities procure salvation.' The sage then left the place. The Rāja and his wife, attended by some followers, went to the Vastrāpatha Kshetra, reaching there about the full-moon in the month of Kārtik. After bathing there, the Rāja was proceeding to visit Bhavanātha and Dāmodar, when cars from heaven arrived and waited for him. The Rāja, with his wife and followers, got into the cars and ascended to heaven.'

In reply to Pārvaṭi's questions asking for the boundaries of the Antargraha Kshetra referred to in the above paragraph, Śiva says, 'The Kshetra extends from the river Svarṇarekhā, which lies to the east of the town of Kaṇakubja (Junāgaḍh), to the mountain of Ujiyaṇta. It contains the following sacred spots:—Dāmodar, Bhavanātha, Dāmodar Viś-

ṇu, the Svarṇarekhā, Brāhma Kuṇḍa, Brahmeśvara, Gaṅgeśvara, Kalmegha, Indreśvara, Raivataka mountain, Ujiyaṇta mountain, Revati Kuṇḍa, Kubhiśvara, Bhima Kuṇḍa, and Bhimeśvara. These are the celebrated sacred places in the Antargraha Kshetra.'

Śiva gives the following directions for the guidance of pilgrims visiting the Vastrāpatha:—

'In the west of the Vastrāpatha lies the holy mountain of Unnavishka (now called Ośam), which receives its name from the circumstance of Bhima having killed the giant Unnaka there. In that mountain there is a cavity which goes down as far as Pātāla. There are many *lingas* or emblems of Śiva there, and sixteen seats of saints, and many gold mines. When the pilgrim has finished his work here he should bathe in the waters called Gaṅgā Strota, which lie to the west of the mountain of Maṅgal, and then bow down to Gaṅgeśvara Mahādeva, situated near it, and perform a śrāddha. He should then go to Siddheśvara Mahādeva and Chakra Tirtha (now known as Trivenī), then to Lokeśvara, and then to Indreśvara, which lies to the west of Siddheśvara. Then he should pay his respects to the goddess Yaksheśvari, which is in the Yakshvan (now called Lākhāvan) wood, also lying to the west of the mountain of Maṅgal. He should then direct his steps towards the mountain of Raivataka, and having there bathed in the Revati Kuṇḍa and Bhima Kuṇḍa and seen the image of Dāmodar, he should come to Bhavanātha. There also bathing in the Mṛigi and other kuṇḍas, he should ascend the mountain of Ujiyaṇta. The pilgrim should perform the rites which are to be performed in a pilgrimage at the holy spots in the mountain, such as Amba-Devī, Hāthipaglaṇ (the elephant's foot), the Rasakupikā (mercurial well), the Sātakuṇḍa (seven tanks), Gaumukha, Gaṅgā, and [the shrines of] Pradyumna and other Yādavas who have become Buddhas in the Kālī age.'

The following extract probably refers to the foundation of Banthali by Vāman, the fifth incarnation of Viṣṇu. The place was at first called after the founder, Vāmanapura, which was afterwards changed to Vāmanasthali, and this last word in the course of time became corrupted into Vānthali or Banthali:—

'In the line of Hiranya Kaśyapa was born a king by name Bali. Under his rule his subjects enjoyed happiness. He was a wor-

shipper of Vishṇu and performed many sacrifices. Lions and deer, cats and dogs, peacocks and serpents, which are natural enemies of each other, lived in peace in his kingdom. One day Nārada, having wandered on the earth, came to the garden in heaven which is called Naidan Vana, and not having yet seen any quarrel he was greatly afflicted. He said to himself that until he had heard the clashing of the weapons of combatants, and until he had seen streams of blood, his soul could not be at rest. He therefore proposed to himself to bring about enmity between Indra and Bali. Accordingly he went to the court of Indra, and there, after praising Bali, he said, 'O Indra, Bali does not even care to notice you. Your celestial damsels desire to make love to him. Your wives also picture to themselves the figure of Bali and think of him night and day. He is a Daitya, and therefore an enemy of yours. You should wage war with him.' Inflamed by this speech of Nārada, Indra called the commander of his forces and ordered him to hold in readiness his troops without losing time, as he said he wanted to go to chastise Rāja Bali. Brīhaspati, the minister of the gods, who was sitting by, advised Indra not to enter precipitately into hostilities with Bali, and, before taking any action, to consult Vishṇu, who, he said, was the disposer of the affairs of the universe and who was cognizant of everything. Indra thereupon despatched the seven Ṛishis to the mountain of Mandāra to invite Vishṇu. The seven ran with haste. Nārada also followed them. On his way Nārada saw some Ṛishis, the chief of whom was Vāṅkīlā (whose body was as small as a man's thumb), bathing in the river which flowed by the side of the mountain of Mandārāchal. Nārada bowed to them, and informing them of the mission of the seven, proposed that they should wait there to salute them, as they would be returning with Vishṇu. At this instant Vishṇu and the seven came up, who, seeing the small figure of Vāṅkīlā and the other Ṛishis, laughed at them. The latter got exceedingly angry and cursed Vishṇu, saying, 'Thou shalt be also as dwarfish as we are.' When Vishṇu heard this he turned pale, and he and the seven begged pardon, and entreated Vāṅkīlā and the others to have mercy on them. They granted pardon, and told Vishṇu that he should be free from

this curse when he should in the course of his holy tour on the earth as an incarnate being, have arrived in Vastrāpatha, by which circumstance, they said, the place would be holier than Prabhāsa even, by as much as a barleycorn, and that his body, by some mysterious cause, would then assume vast proportions. After this incident the seven Ṛishis and Nārada came back to Indra and informed him that Vishṇu would go down to the earth under the name of Vāman, and, assuming a dwarfish form, would punish Bali. Now Vishṇu became incarnate in the world assuming a small figure, and after some time, pursuing his holy tour, arrived at Vastrāpatha. Having bathed in the Svarnarekhā, he bethought himself, 'Shall I first go to see Somanātha or Bhavanātha?' He then resolved that he would practise such severe austerities that Somanātha himself should come to him. So he began his devotion. Some days having passed in such austerities, Somanātha caused a chasm in the earth and came out in the form of a liṅga and stood before Vāman. He desired Vāman to ask whatever he wished. Vāman, with joined palms, said, 'My lord, if you are pleased with me, be so gracious as to reside here. I further desire that a town may be founded here, to be called after my name.' Śiva expressed compliance and disappeared. Vāman then set out towards the Ujjayānta, and on his way saw five persons glowing like fire. Vāman was astonished to see them, and asked who they were. One of them said in reply that he was Ekapāda ('the one-footed'). Another said he was Giridārūna. The third gave his name as Sīṅhanāda ('lion's roar'). The fourth said his name was Meghanāda (thunder). The name of the fifth was Kālmegha. They declared that they were the guardians of the holy place, and that they were pleased with him. Vāman besought them to do him the favour of remaining there to guard the Kshetra. Thereupon Ekapāda took his station at the foot of the mountain; Giridārūna chose the top of the mountain for his abode; Meghanāda quartered himself on the summit of the Ujjayānta; the Bhavāni peak was appropriated by Sīṅhanāda; and Kālmegha contented himself with the banks of the Svarnarekhā. Vāman then worshipped these guardians of the Kshetra and ascended Ujjayānta. He beheld Bhavāni, and as he was greeting the sun he saw Śiva in the air. He thereupon praised

Śiva, who was thereby pleased, and told him that he (Vāman) was now free from his curse, and that in a short time his body would begin to enlarge. Śiva further told him to ask whatever boon he desired. Vāman applied for directions as to the method to be followed in performing the pilgrimage of the Vastrāpatha, which he desired to do. Śiva replied, 'On the north-west of the Vastrāpatha there is a large tank, and to the west of the tank is a wood of Bīlva trees, which contains an earthen liṅga, by seeing which on the Śivarātri day a hunter obtained admission to Kailāsa, and Indra was absolved from the sin of the slaughter of a Brāhmaṇ. There is another liṅga to the west of this, which was established by Kubera. South-east of Bhavanātha is the seat of the Rākshasa called Hidaṁba, and near it is a consecrated spot dedicated by Yama to Śiva. There is also another place near it dedicated to Śiva, which was established by Chitrāgupta, and which is called Chitrāgupteśvara. On the west of Bhavanātha is a liṅga which was established by Brahma; it is known by the name of Kedāreśvara, and Brahma is always present there. There is a liṅga on the north-east of Bhavanātha which is called Indreśvara from its being founded by Indra at the time of his visit to the earthen liṅga, when he was redeemed from the sin of the murder of a Brāhmaṇ. You should therefore see all these places, as also Dāmodar on the Raivataka.' Having said this, Śiva disappeared. Then Vāman, according to Śiva's direction, visited the different places and took up his abode on the west of Bhavanātha.

'Meanwhile Nārada thought in his mind that Viṣṇu would descend on the earth and overthrow Bali. Yet his mind was not at ease, as there was no struggle going on. He said to himself, 'I went to instigate Indra, but Bṛhaspati defeated my object: I shall therefore now go to Rāja Bali.' Accordingly he went to Bali, who received him with great respect and worshipped him. Nārada told Bali that the gods could not brook his prosperity, and that they had contrived a plan for his overthrow. He also told him that he should be on his guard. He added that he was going to Viṣṇu, who had come to Raivataka, having assumed a small shape with a particular motive. Nārada then went to Vāman and told him that he ought to go and subdue Bali, who was going to make a sacrifice. Vāman replied

that Rāja Bali was a worshipper of Viṣṇu, and besides he himself was destitute of power, and was therefore unable to undertake the task. Nārada said, 'You are the same Viṣṇu who became incarnate as Varāha and Nṛsiṁha, and your present incarnation is also for accomplishing the work of gods. You will hereafter become incarnate as Paraśurāma, Rāma, Budha, and Kalki; and Indra and other gods desire that you should press Bali down to Pātālā. Please, therefore, fulfil the desire of the gods by chastising Bali.' Vāman complied and came to the town of Bali. There he lived and took his meals at the houses of Brāhmaṇs, pursuing his studies of the Vedas, and at the same time imparting instruction in them to the sons of the Brāhmaṇs. Some time passed in this way. One day while Bali was engaged in his sacrifice, Vāman came to his pavilion and was received with great reverence by Bali. Bali expressed to his priest, Śukra Āchārya, that it was a most fortunate circumstance that Vāman, a sage deeply read in the Vedas, had honoured his sacrifice, and that he (Bali) would grant whatever request might be made by him. Śukra Āchārya showed the Rāja that charities bestowed on the blind and the deaf, on dwarfs and on cripples, bore no fruit. Bali said, however that might be, in his eyes a man learned in the Vedas was like Viṣṇu. He then told Vāman that all his wealth was his, and that he might ask whatever he desired. Vāman said he was not covetous, like other Brāhmaṇs. He only desired space such as he could cover in three steps, wherein to give instruction to his pupils. Bali granted the request, and as he was pouring water on the palm of Vāman, the latter became so tall and huge that the sun appeared no higher than his navel. Thus by two steps he occupied the whole world and all the regions, and there was no room for the third step. Vāman thereupon asked Bali where he should step for the third time. Bali said that his head was the proper place for his foot. Vāman thereupon pressed Bali down to Pātālā. This gave great joy to the gods. Vāman then founded a town, called after him Vāmanapur, on the west of Bhavanātha, on a site which was recommended by Garga Āchārya.'

There remain only two or three stories in the *Gīrār Māhātmya* unmentioned. One of them is a long one relating to the Mṛgi Kuṇḍa. The

author there gives unbounded scope to his imagination, and furnishes a very beautiful illustration of the Hindu belief in the transmigration of the soul. The other stories tell how the mountains and the Gīrnār Brāhmaṇas came into Vastīrpatha. But the above extracts will

convey a sufficiently correct idea of the character of the contents of the *Māhātmya*. Śiva gives a caution to Pārvatī against disclosing this account of the Vastīrpatha to an unbeliever. Kailāsa is promised to the hearer of this story.

CORRESPONDENCE AND MISCELLANEA.

PROFESSOR WEBER ON THE YAVANAS, MAHĀBHĀSHYA, RĀMĀYANA, AND KRISHNAJANMĀSHTAMĪ.

To the Editor of the "Indian Antiquary."

SIR,—Since I last wrote, you have produced some more translations of papers written by me on different points of Indian literature and antiquities, and I am very thankful to you for this honour. On the other hand, there have appeared, either in your columns or in those of other Indian journals, several articles directed against the views maintained by me therein, or in the papers formerly translated by you. I think it proper therefore, with your leave, to notice them cursorily, and to defend or to give up my own positions according to the value of the objections raised. Following the chronological order, I divide my observations under four heads: 1, the Yavanas; 2, the *Mahābhāshya*; 3, the *Rāmāyana*; 4, the *Krishna-janmāshṭamī*.

1. *The Yavanas*.—Mr. Rehatsek's translation of my paper *Hindu Pronunciation of Greek, and Greek Pronunciation of Hindu Words* (vol. II. pp. 143-150), has elicited from the pen of Bābu Rājendra Lāla Mitra a very curious article "On the supposed identity of the Greeks with the Yavanas of Sanskrit writers" (*Jour. As. Soc. Beng.* 1874, pp. 246-79). I leave aside all speculations as to the etymology and origin of the name itself, as foreign to the question at issue, and restrict myself to the historical proofs of its actual occurrence in India.

The oldest passages in which we as yet find it are those famous edicts of king Priyadasi, which mention twice the Antiyoka Yonārāja, once alone (*tabl. II.*), and again along with Tulamāya,* Antikonā, Māka, Alikṣa(m). dala: see the facsimile of the Khālsi Inscription in Cunningham's *Archæological Survey*, I. 247, pl. xli. This facsimile gives us in the seventh line also the reading Yona-ka(m)bojesu, the very compound which is used so often in the Pāli texts, and which (see my *Indische Streifen*, II. 321) fixes, if other proof was required, the geographical position of the Yonas by that of the other frontier-people so closely allied with them therein,

the Kambojas. Wherever we find them both mentioned in this compound, or even only along with each other, we may be quite sure that we have to understand under the Yonas the Baktrian Greeks, the neighbours of Kabul. This decides at once the question also as to the meaning of *Yavana* in the oldest works in the Brāhmaṇic literature in which the word is mentioned,—the *Mahābhārata*, *Mahābhāshya*, and *Rāmāyana*. The compound *Saka-Yavanam* in the *Bhāshya* shows the Yavanas in a similar intimate connection also with the Śakas, Indoskythes (and in my opinion, see *Ind. Studien*, XIII. 306, the Yavana king mentioned in it as the besieger of Śāketa is not necessarily to be taken as a Greek king, but may possibly already denote a Śaka king, as the name of the Yavanas went with their supremacy to their successors in it, the Śakas; see below). There is only one apparently older passage in which the name of the Yavanas is mentioned, viz. that sūtra of Pāṇini which teaches to form the word *Yavandā* (*lipi*, writing of the Yavana, as the *saṁskṛitakāra* explains). But the age of Pāṇini is not settled at all; and though he may be older than the passages of the *Mahābhārata*, and is really older of course than the *Mahābhāshya* or the *Rāmāyana*, still there is not the slightest proof that he also preceded Alexander and the establishment of the Greek Baktrian kingdoms. And, no such proof existing, it is certainly very provoking to take just this his mentioning of the Yavanas as a proof to the contrary, viz. of his being later than Alexander (conf. *Ind. Stud.* XIII. 375): for it would no doubt be very hard to understand under the Yavanas of this Gandhāra author any other people but those famous neighbours of the Kambojas and Gandhāras, and this the more so, as in fact we know at present of no other people of that name. For with regard to the opinion of some scholars, Lassen for instance, that *Yavana* was used by the Hindus originally for a Semitic tribe or nation, we must consider it as a mere gratuitous supposition, so long as it is not substantiated by any real fact. Where are the passages to countenance it? Let them be brought

* At Junāgaḥ, Tūramayo.

forward to enable us to test them. Meanwhile, for want of any such evidences as I have adduced above in support of the identity of the Yavanas with the Greeks, we have at present no choice but to stick to that. And the historical origin of this denomination is, moreover, close to hand. We know from the cuneiform inscriptions of the Achæmenidæ that they had no other name for the Greeks but Ya-u-na (the Ionians of Minor Asia having been the first Greeks with whom they came in contact, they called the Greek nation in general by their name). Maybe already at that time the name had come over to India through the medium of a few of those Indian auxiliary troops in the army of Darius that escaped its general defeat and returned safely home. But the real notoriety of the name in India dates first from the time when Alexander waged war against her, as it was no doubt by *Persian interpreters* that the communications between the two parties (Greeks and Hindus) were carried on, and from these *Persians* the conquered people at large learned the name of their conquerors. The political supremacy of the Greeks in the north-west of India lasted for about 250 years, during which their culture and their name took deep root and left deep traces; when they ceased to be independent, their name passed, together with their sovereignty, titles, coinage, &c., to their rivals and successors, the Indoskythians (Sakas), and afterwards from them step by step to the other foreign nations reigning in the north-west of India,—to the Parthians, Persians,—and finally to the Arabs and the Moslems in general.

With regard to my own paper mentioned above, I beg to call attention to a very interesting communication of M. Julien Vinson in the *Revue de Linguistique*, VI. 120 ff. I had incidentally observed (II. 147 n.) that I did "not think *טָגֵי* was connected with *śikhi* also the word *tōgei*, supposed to be Malabar, can scarcely have originated from *śikhi*, but is rather perhaps some Dakhani word, which in that case might very well be the root of the Hebrew word." M. Vinson starts from this my remark and shows that *tōgei* is really a Tamil word meaning "plume de paon, queue de paon, paon," and is radically connected with other Tamil words and roots. Thus he arrives at the result: "Si les marins de Salomon sont réellement allés dans l'Inde, s'ils ont débarqué sur une terre dont ils ont transcrit le nom 'Ophir', s'ils ont rapporté des paons de cette terre, si cette terre est celle habitée par les Abhira, non loin des bouches de l'Indus, il est nécessaire d'admettre que ces anciens Sémites ont eu affaire, soit au pays même des Abhira, soit sur un autre point de la côte occidentale de l'Inde, avec des

peuplades Dravidiennes, et que c'est de celles-ci qu'ils ont reçu les paons appelées par elles probablement *tōgei*, peut-être *śikhi*. Il n'y a pas loin de cette forme aux leçons de la Bible." This agrees perfectly well with the Malayalam derivation of the Sanskrit *Śrīṅgavera* (स्त्रीरङ्गवेर), 'ginger,' given by my honoured friend Dr. Burnell in these columns, vol. I. p. 332.

2. *The Mahābhāṣya*.—I have given in the *Indische Studien*, XIII. 293-502, a detailed exposition of the religious, historical, geographical, social and literary dates resulting from the contents of this highly valuable work, introduced by a discussion of the critical questions relating to its age and composition, and to the authority and evidence-power of the words and passages it contains. Some of these points have been discussed meanwhile also in your columns, and others added, which I had failed to notice. At the end of my paper (pp. 497-502) I have already answered the objections of Prof. Bhāṇḍārkar (*Ind. Ant.* vol. II. pp. 238-40), but I beg to return here to some of them. I have first to state that in the principal passage as to the age of Patañjali, viz. the scholium to Pāṇini III. 2. 123 (*carāṇas tat*), the 3rd pers. plur. *bharantī* as given by Bhāṇḍārkar in vol. I. p. 300n. (वासिन्भवा भवन्ति), and repeated thus by myself, *Ind. Stud.* XIII. 309, is to be changed to the nom. sing. *bharantī*, the present tense, as the Banāras edition really has. The sense of the passage itself is however not altered by this correction, and with regard to that I must concede indeed that Bhāṇḍārkar's remark, that the purport of the passage *Puṣhyamitraṁ yajayāmaḥ* "is exactly similar to *arṇad Yavanah Sāketam*, the historical value of which is admitted by Prof. Weber," hits the very point of the question. But on the other hand I have to draw attention to the possibility that both passages may perhaps be considered as not at all test-evidences for Patañjali's own age, but may belong to the so-called *mūlābhāṣikā addhāraka* which he found already in the traditional *vṛtti* of Pāṇini's text, in which case they ought very probably to be considered as test-evidences for the age of Pāṇini himself (*Ind. Stud.* XIII. 315, 319, 320, 498). I have further to retract my opposition to Bhāṇḍārkar's taking the word *yathā laukikacāritrasūtra* as a *vārttika*, for I am informed by Prof. Kielhorn that he has got hold of a manuscript of the *vārttikapāṭha* (a great desideratum as yet for the right understanding of the *Bhāṣya*), and that according to this MS. the work of the *vārttikakāra* really begins with the very words in question, *siddhe—cal-dīkṣha*. In his "Allusions to Kṛishṇa in Patañjali's *Mahābhāṣya*," (*Ind. Ant.* III. 14-16) Bhāṇḍārkar has added one metrical passage more which had escaped my notice (VI. 3. 6, *Janārdanaś te*

ātmachaturthā eva) to those enumerated already by myself (*Ind. Stud.* XIII. 349 ff.). He takes all those passages as real quotations by Patañjali himself, and as dating, therefore, from the middle of the second century before Christ, and he adduces them as testimonies not only to show "that the stories about Kṛishṇa and his worship as a god are not so recent as European scholars would make them, who find in Christ a prototype of Kṛishṇa, and in the Bible the original of the *Bhagavadgītā*," but also against those "who believe our Purāṇic literature to be merely a later growth," and as direct proofs "that some such works as the *Harivaṃśa* and the *Purāṇas* must have existed then." Here I have to remark that even without paying the least attention to the unsafeness of the ground on which we stand here, and even while fully taking these words and quotations as dating really from the very time of Patañjali, they do not yield anyhow the conclusions at which Bhāṇḍārkar arrives with regard to them. They are quite conclusive and very welcome indeed as testimonies for *that* worship of Kṛishṇa, as a god or demigod, which forms an intermediate stage between his position in the epic as a warrior and hero of the Vṛishṇi race and his elevation to the dignity of Vishṇu, of the supreme Being, of God (*Ind. Stud.* XIII. 349 ff.), but they do not interfere at all with the opinion of those who maintain, on quite reasonable grounds, that *this latter* development of the worship of Kṛishṇa, and especially the legendary and ritualistic portion of it, has been influenced to a certain degree by an acquaintance with the doctrines, legends, and symbols of the early Christian ages; or even with the opinion of those who are inclined to find in the *Bhagavadgītā* traces of the Bible: for, though I for my part am as yet not convinced at all in this respect, the age of the *Bhagavadgītā* is still so uncertain that these speculations are at least not shackled by any chronological obstacles. I beg to remark here, *prasaṅgena*, that the origin of the worship of Kṛishṇa as a god or demigod is as yet in complete obscurity. Kāṇsa seems to have been a demon as well as Bālī, and very probably Kṛishṇa too,—though he appears in the epic as a warrior, and in the *Chhāndogya Upanishad* as "thirsty" for holy information,—is to be traced back to a mythological base, as his intimate connexion with Arjuna, himself a name and form of Indra (according to the *Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa* and to the legends in the *Kaṇvaśikhi Upanishad*), points to a common origin of them both; but at present we look still in vain for a key to solve this mystery, which is the more mysterious as the meaning of both names (the Black and the White) appears *à priori* more appropriate

for deadly antagonists than for intimate friends. It is curious enough that the name of a paternal uncle of Kṛishṇa, Ākrūra, who is mentioned already by Yāska (II. 2; Roth takes the passage to be an interpolation), seems to appear even in the *Avesta*, though indeed in the form of Ākhrūra (with long *ā* at the beginning), son of Hūšravañh (Šušraṇas). But to return to Bhāṇḍārkar. That there existed a Purāṇic literature at the time of the *Bhāṇḍārka* is very probable; we did not need these quotations to feel almost sure of that, for we know that *itihāsas* and *purāṇas* existed even as early as the time of the *Brāhmanas*, but that "*our* Purāṇic literature," that "*some such work as the Harivaṃśa and the Purāṇas, must have existed at the time of Patañjali*," is more than I can gather from those highly interesting statements about the popularity of dramatic representations of Kāṇsa's death at the hands of his sister's son Kṛishṇa, and the subjugation of Bālī, and from those metrical passages relating to Saṁkarshana, Kośava, Janārdana, Vāsudeva, Kṛishṇa, which may as well have been taken from some sort of *Mahābhārata* existing at the time. About the existence of such a one, and even of a composition by Śuka Vaiyāsaki, at the time of the *Bhāṇḍārka*, there can be no reasonable doubt, though we must beware of going beyond that and identifying with it directly our present text; for the real age of an existing text can safely be judged only by the internal evidences afforded by its own contents, though even those must be handled with great care, for the more we learn about the history of a Hindu literary composition, the clearer we see that there are many ways to account for statements contained in it. Thus much is certain, that the high state of culture which is apparent from what we learn from the *Bhāṇḍārka* about social, mercantile, political, and religious matters, as well as about the highly flourishing condition of sacred, learned, and secular literature, would involve even *à priori* also the existence of a *secular poetry*, and it is therefore quite in accordance with the picture to be drawn from those other statements what we find mentioned in it in this respect. But highly valuable as these indications and the very quotations from *that poetry* are, we must take care to identify it directly with the *poetry* really in our possession. There is a gap between the two, which cannot be filled up, or even fairly bridged over, by such weak links, though they may serve indeed to connect them loosely together. The Indian climate (see my *Lectures on the History of Indian Literature*, pp. 171 ff.) is not favourable to the preservation of written literature. Continued oral tradition, on the other hand, is but the reward and result of great

merit and great popularity; the less significant and less popular works are simply lost. If this has been the case even with the Vedic literature (and indeed we have lost, as it seems, almost all of the old *Brāhmaṇas* and *Sūtras*, only scanty debris remaining in quotations here and there), it is much more so with the secular poetry; the happier successor has put aside his surpassed predecessor, whose text is now no more learnt by heart or copied. Thus it has come to pass that what we have still of the old literature are only the master-works, in which each branch of it reaches its culmination, and which served afterwards as models for the modern literature deprived more or less of self-creative faculty.

Thus far we have taken all these "allusions" in words and passages as real evidences for Patañjali's time; but after the publication of the concluding verses of the second chapter of the *Vākyapadīya* by Prof. Kielhorn in vol. III. pp. 285-287 (as II. 63 the corresponding passage of *Ind. Stud.* V. 153-166 had been left out), I trust Bhaṇḍārkar too will now acknowledge that a work which has suffered such treatment and undergone so many fates as to receive on three different occasions the epithets *viplovita*, *bhrashta*, *vichhīna*, is not to be trusted in all its details as conveying certain intelligence about the date of its original author. In making use of any of them, we must always keep in mind (*Ind. Stud.* XIII. 320) the possibility that its testimony may not be valid for Patañjali's, nay, even for Chandrāchārya's, but only for Jayāpīṭha's time! whereas, on the other hand, truly it may as well indeed, on the contrary, belong to the above-mentioned *mādhvabhikṣita* group, and go back even to Pāṇini himself! We are here always in a bad dilemma what to choose. The safest way at present is no doubt to collect first, as I have tried to do, every statement which is to be found in the *Bhāṣya*, and to leave it to the future to decide (or not to decide!) on the relative value of each single fact.

3. *The Rāmāyaṇa*.—First I have to thank Prof. Bhaṇḍārkar for having corrected (vol. II. p. 123) my erroneous statement that Gorresio's edition had nothing to correspond with the passage quoted by Bhavabhūti from the end of the *Bālācharita* (*Bālakāṇḍa*); his remarks about the probable interpolations in Gorresio's text at this very place appear to me very judicious. Mr. Trimbak Telang has succeeded (vol. III. pp. 124, 266) in tracing the half-śloka *एति जीवन्तमानन्दो नरं नृपेशतादयि* which is mentioned in the *Bhāṣya* at Pāṇ. III. 1. 67, fol. 48 b of the Banāras edition, and (but only the three first words) at I. 3, 12, fol. 246 a, to the *Rāmāyaṇa*, VI, 123, 2 Bombay edition, or VI. 110, 3 Gorresio's edition; and in his opinion "this

passage establishes beyond the reach of controversy the priority of time of Vālmiki's *Rāmāyaṇa* over Patañjali's *Mahābhāṣya*. I am afraid he is mistaken in this his assertion. Proverbial sayings of this sort might be introduced by any author into his work without the least difficulty. The verse contains nothing to show that it must have originally belonged to the *Rāmāyaṇa*; it may as well have been taken by Vālmiki from the *Bhāṣya*, as by the *Bhāṣya* from his work. Or, for instance, do those passages *नयवा मन्त्रार्थी... यथा वा धान्यार्थी... नहि युगाः सन्तीति... नहि विमुक्ताः सन्तीति...* which we find in Mādhava's *Sarvadarśanasaṅgraha*, § 1, as well as repeatedly in the *Bhāṣya* (see *Ind. Stud.* XIII. 326, 327, 341, 459), "establish beyond the reach of controversy" the priority of Mādhava over Patañjali? Here indeed we know the contrary as a fact, yet the other case is of just the same stamp: and as we do not know Vālmiki's age from other sources, we certainly cannot establish it from this. There is, moreover, one circumstance attached to the verse, but overlooked by Mr. Kāshināth Trimbak Telang, which makes it an utter impossibility to consider Vālmiki as its author. For he gives it himself only as a quotation, as an old popular verse according to Gorresio's edition (वैदिकी चैव गायत्री वैदिकी एतिवादि मे), as a fine popular one in the Bombay recension (कन्याणी चैव...)! I do not take this as an evidence that Vālmiki borrowed it from the *Bhāṣya*,—both may have taken it from a common source,—but thus much is certain, the verse is of no evidence at all as to the priority of Vālmiki over the *Bhāṣya*! Nor has Mr. Telang been more fortunate with regard to those other indications of the existence of the *Rāmāyaṇa* at the time of the latter, which he has brought forward in his former essay, "Was the *Rāmāyaṇa* copied from Homer?" and for a full discussion of which I must refer to *Ind. Stud.* XIII. 336 ff. 480 ff.—I come now to Lassen's general objections against my theory about the age and composition of the *Rāmāyaṇa* as translated by Dr. Muir in your vol. III. pp. 102-4. Allow me first to remark that I cannot fully acknowledge the truth of the statement of my views as given by Lassen. For when he says that I maintain that "the *Rāmāyaṇa* expresses not the struggle of the Āryan Indians with the aborigines, but the hostile attitude of the Buddhists and Brāhmaṇas to each other," he confounds the views of Mr. Talboys Wheeler,—which I am quoting and partly criticising, partly adopting,—with my own views, which are not settled on either side, but rather tend to combine both theories, and moreover to establish a third object as the probable original purport of the poem, viz. the restoration of the national gods, the bringing back the hearers to

their allegiance to the Brâhmanical gods. Further, I cannot find that I have identified Râma with Balârâma, the mythical founder of agriculture; "it is very obvious to trace a connection between Râma and the agricultural demigod Râma Halabhrîit" are my words, and in the note I refer also to the *Râman Hodstra* of the *Avesta*. Finally, I am surprised to learn that in my opinion "the victory of the second Râma over his elder namesake is to be considered as an echo of an acquaintance with the Homeric poems," whereas in fact Parâsurâma (that "elder namesake") is nowhere even mentioned in my whole treatise. (Lassen no doubt has confounded the bow of Janaka, and what I say about its bending and breaking, with the bow of Jâmadagnya.) Now, what regards the objections themselves, first I am glad to see that Lassen coincides with me in regarding the Buddhistic narration of Râma as "the now existing oldest form" of the Râma-legend; but on the other hand I am quite at a loss how to combine with this acknowledgment his notion that this narrative is only a misconception or distortion of the Brâhmanical original. The very circumstance which he mentions in support of this, namely, that in the *Dasaratha-jâtaka* it is the sister, not the wife of Râma who accompanies him in his exile,—no doubt because she too is afraid of the queen her stepmother,—and further that she, the sister, becomes the wife of her brother after their return from the exile, appears to me to attest the great antiquity of this form of the legend. For it is only in the Vedic age (compare *अप्येति पञ्चात्* *Rik.* X. 3, 3; and *Âmbikâ* as sister of Rudra) and earlier, in the Âryan period, that we find traces of intermarriage between brothers and sisters (the hymn in *Rik.* X. 10 seems to be composed just in order to put a stop to it!). The Buddhistic legend on the origin of the Śākya family has one instance more of the kind. That the *Râmâyana* contains no direct allusions to the Buddhists is just one of the points which I myself have brought forward as militating against Talboys Wheeler's theory.—With regard to the next consideration of Lassen's, about the wars between the Brâhmanical kings of Southern India and the Buddhists of Ceylon, and to his remark that an attack on the part of the Buddhists could only proceed from the side of Ceylon, I confess my inability to understand their pertinency to the points in question; moreover I beg to draw attention to the fact that the *Mahavamsa* mentions repeated invasions in Ceylon from India dating in B.C. 257, 207, and 103 (pp. 127, 128, 203, Turnour's translation).—Further, as I have not "identified" Râma with Balârâma, it is of no consequence that the Brâhmanas always accurately distinguish between the two, nor have I regarded the second

Râma directly "as a divine personification of agriculture;" what I maintain is simply that in the old legends, from which Vâlmiki drew, "the reign of Râma was a golden age, and that cultivation and agriculture were then vigorously flourishing." The whole character of Râma is certainly not so much that of a warrior—though he appears in the *Râmâyana* also in this capacity—as that of a righteous, mild and gentle genius or king,—as it were a Buddhist ideal of a prince. Now, whether he was originally only a mythic conception of some as yet undetermined physical phenomenon, or really, as Lassen takes him to be, an historical personage, I dare not as yet decide. But when Lassen goes on to say that Sîtâ too was originally an historical personage who was turned into a daughter of the earth, into a deified furrow, after Râma had been transported into the ranks of the gods, I cannot follow him at all. The goddess of the Vedic ritual, the spouse of Indra or Parjanya, or, as she appears in the *Taittiriya Brâhmana*, the daughter of Sâvitar and courtier of the Moon, is protected by seven charms against such a dethronement.—When Lassen calls it a "very paradoxical assumption" that the abduction of Sîtâ and the conflict around Laŋkā are echoes of an acquaintance with the Homeric poems, as it imputes to the "Brâhmanical poets a great poverty in creative power," I have simply to answer that in literary history we have many instances of the very first poets having taken the ideas and materials for their poems partly from other sources without any damage to their glory and to the halo of their creative power. I beg to mention only Shakespeare, Goethe, and Schiller. And when Lassen further remarks that an "echo in this case would really presuppose an acquaintance with the Homeric poems," I beg to state that I never maintained so much as that, nor do I think this presupposition anyhow necessary. There is nothing more required than what I have assumed, viz. that "some kind of knowledge of the substance of the Homeric story found its way to India," and here found a fertile soil in the mind of Vâlmiki, who combined some ideas from it with the old mythic or historical legends of the golden age of Râma, and created by his own poetical genius that great poem which is the wonder and the love of every Hindu. To deny to the Hindus any traces whatever of such an acquaintance with the Homeric saga cycle seems to me rather hard, after what we find in the Pâli writings about Kirke and the Trojan horse; and as in the *Janaka-jâtaka* the rescue of a prince from shipwreck by a sea-goddess is combined with the bending of a great bow by him, and winning thus the hand of the Queen, I feel for my part fully convinced that here too (and conse-

quently also in the bow of Janaka in the *Rāmāyana*) we have before us an "echo" of the story of Odysseus, Leukothea, and the great bow which won him back his Penelope; I am far from attempting to base every story of a bent bow on it, but *this* one I do.—Further, even while waiving the question whether the Hindus derived their zodiacal signs from the Greeks, not from the Chaldeans (see, however, *Ind. Stud.* II. 414 ff.), I do not see how the astronomical data occurring in the *Rāmāyana* are to have *no force* at all as proofs; it is almost certain that the Hindus got their knowledge also of the planets from the Greeks (for in the oldest passages in which they are mentioned, Mars and war, Mercury and commerce, Jupiter and sacrificial ritual are brought into relation), and the mentioning of the planets in the *Rāmāyana* points, no doubt, to a time when that Grecian influence was an established custom. The reference "to the Yavanas and Śakas [add the Pahlavas, Kambojas, &c.] as powerful nations in the northern region" is—not "to show that these nations were known to the Hindus as such"—but pray, as what? I think Lassen said they were mentioned "as powerful nations in the northern region"; is this not the same with an establishment of their dominion in that quarter? Finally, I have to remark that the *Rājatarangīni*, I. 116, does not contain (as Lassen says it does) any statement that the king of Kāśmīr Dāmodara (reigning in the beginning of the first century A.C. according to Lassen himself) "caused the *Rāmāyana*, with all its episodes, to be read to him"; for the text says quite the contrary,—that Dāmodara is still (*adyatpi*) to be seen, his curse not yet ended, as he has not been able to fulfil the necessary condition, viz. to hear the whole *Rāmāyana* in one day. To close, I may be allowed to add to these correspondences in the *Dasarathajātaka* with verses in the *Rāmāyana* which have already been pointed out by Fausbøll one passage more, which has been indicated to me by Dr. J. Muir (and to him by Prof. Cowell). When Bharatakumāra comes to tell Rāma of the death of Dasaratha and to call him back, he finds him sitting at the door of the hermitage *satkūthapī-takañchanorūpikavāsiya* (Fausbøll, p. 3, l. 7, *infra*). Thus Rāvana saw Sītā विवाहमार्गं वपुषः काञ्चनीं पद्मिनीम् (III. 52, 21, Gorresio; the Bombay edition, III. 46, 15, has only विवाहमार्गं वपुषः).

4. *The Krishnajanmāshṭami*.—I am particularly thankful to you for having laid a translation of § 3 of my paper on it before the English and Hindu public at large, as I do not think that it

had attracted due attention before, so long as it was known only in German. But I should have liked very much that you had given also a condensed review (if nothing more) of the contents of §§ 1 and 2, which serve as its base, as I discuss in the first the literary sources from which I have derived my information, and in the second give a picture of the festival itself according to their statements.* I have since found a full description of it, containing almost all the passages I had succeeded in bringing together, and even some others, in an excellent work, for an acquaintance with which I am very much indebted to my honoured friend Dr. R. Rost, viz. in the *Haribhaktivilāsa* of Śrī Gopālabhāṭṭa (Calcutta edition Sakābdaḥ 1767, A.D. 1845), pp. 519 to 541. (Wilson, *Sol. Works*, vol. I. p. 167, ed. Rost, mentions a *Haribhaktivilāsa* by one Sanātana, disciple of Chaitanya).

Now as regard the strictures on my paper offered by Mr. Growse in vol. III. p. 300, I am glad to see that he coincides in his positions 1—5 with the principal arguments of it; but I should like to know what he means by saying at the end of his 2nd head "This again is no novel discovery." I should be indeed thankful to him if he pointed out the place where the Indian tradition that the doctrine of salvation by faith in the one God Kṛishṇa was brought by Nārada from the northern region of Śvetadvīpa was spoken of before I drew attention to it. What he says under his 6th head shows clearly that he has, with all his great care in reading my article, thoroughly failed to understand the sense of the particular and very simple point in question. It is because the custom of the Egyptian Church of celebrating the birth and baptism of Christ together on the same day prevailed only from the second half of the fourth century till the year 431, when the celebration of the birth alone took its place, that I "feel strongly induced to put the borrowing of that form of the Kṛishṇa janmāshṭami in which "the *nāma-karāṇam*, the giving a name, forms an integral part of its celebration" at the very time during which that custom peculiar to Egypt prevailed. The date itself (December or July, midwinter or midsummer) plays no part at all in this my discussion, and is only spoken of incidentally in the note. Though "I frankly admit that one-half of my subject [in that section], viz. Christian archaeology, is strange ground" to me, I hope I have shown myself not so thoroughly inadequate to the task as in Mr. Growse's opinion is evidently the case. I have consulted the best authorities at

* The contents of § 4, concerning the artistic representations of Kṛishṇa as a suckling, would also be of general interest, especially when accompanied by a copy of that

beautiful drawing on the second plate from Moor's *Hindu Pantheon*, pl. 59.

hand either in print or in person, and given everywhere their statements in full. Nor do I think that Mr. Growse on his part has been very fortunate with regard to those particular points in which he attempts to set right, with considerable confidence, what I have said. For when he calls the rosary "a devotion instituted by St. Dominic in the 13th century" he is somewhat behind the real state of the investigations on this point. What he says is indeed the usual tradition of the Dominicans, to whose exertions no doubt the common use of the rosary owes its popularity, but according to Steitz—the last, as far as I know, who wrote on this subject (see *Herzog Real-Encyclopædie für protestant. Theologie und Kirche*, III. 127, Gotha, 1860)—this tradition is "as dubious" as the opinion of those who maintain that the rosary was invented by Benedict of Nubia, or by the Venerable Bede, or by Peter the Hermit. Steitz repudiates also the opinion of those who believe that the rosary came to the West with the Crusaders, though he concedes that the influence of the Muhammadan custom may have contributed to its propagation. In his opinion the *belts* of the Anglo-Saxon Church in the ninth century (*septem beltidum paternoster pro eis cantetur* in the tenth canon of the *Consilium Orléansense*, A.D. 814) testify to the independent origin of the rosary in the West; whereas to Köppen as well as to me it seems very improbable that so singular an invention should have been made independently in two parts of the world, in the West and in the East. In the latter we find it no doubt earlier than in the former, as its Hindu use goes back to the *Atharva-pariśiṣṭas*, the *Rāmāyaṇa*, *Kuṇḍasambhava*, *Vaṛahamihira*. Besides, we have here a good explanation of its name as well as of its origin. After all, it was not I, but Köppen, who first derived it from Śiva's garland of skulls, and he made the conjecture (Mr. Growse would do well to read the passage in the book itself, *Die Religion des Buddha*, II. 319, 1859) without even knowing the least of the particular relation of the rosary to the Śiva-cult which I have pointed out in my note, viz. the indispensable use of it at the Śivapūjā, which is fruitless *vind rudrākṣhamālayā*, and the very name *rudrākṣhamālayā*, which we find at least already in the *Rājatarāṅgiṇī*. I add that Śiva himself is called *akṣhamālaya* in the *Mahābhārata*, XII. 10,374, and Gauri wears the rosary in *Kuṇḍasambhava*, V. 11. And for the particular point in question it is of some interest after all that in *Jaimini Bhārata*, XXII. 36, a Brahmarākṣhasa actually appears: मरुत्सुखं भूतं काष्ठे यशोवर्तिकं । विभक्तकपालानां जपमालां नयनको॥ I adduce this passage only as an illustration, not as evidence of the conjecture, for I am not prepared to assume also that the *yajñopav-*

asta owed its origin to a string of human entrails! whereas I think it very probable that the garland of human skulls worn by Śiva himself, as well as, in his honour, by the Śivaitic Kāpālīka sect, may have become, in the diminutive form of the rosary, from an emblem of his service an expedient also for the right execution of the prescribed numerous repetitions of his names, as well as of the solemn *mantra* professing faith in him. In Köppen's opinion the rosary has been borrowed by the Christians (as already Baumgarten proposed in his *Christliche Alterthümer*, Halle, 1768) through the intermediation of the Moslems; but the Anglo-Saxon *belts* make this rather doubtful indeed (see Binterim, *Denkwürdigkeiten der kathol. Kirche*, VII. 111 ff. Mainz, 1831), and point to an earlier age for the borrowing. How old the rosary

(سُبْحَانَ) is in Islām is uncertain as yet; an Arabic Dictionary with full quotations from the oldest literature downwards—as we have it for the Sanskrit in the great *Petersburg Dictionary* of Böhtlingk and Roth, which is to be completed in these days—does not yet exist, and we have therefore no distinct guide for the oldest use of the word and, what is the same, of the thing. The *Qurān* itself does not mention either, and my learned friend Prof. Dieterici is of opinion that the rosary was adopted by the Moslems especially in order to secure the right enumeration of the hundred fine names of Allah collected from the *Qurān* (سُبْحَانَ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ), the beginning of which formula, viz. the words, سُبْحَانَ اللَّهِ praise of God, repeatedly occurs in the *Qurān* itself.

I proceed to the second rectification of Mr. Growse, viz. to his statement that St. John Chrysostom, in that very sermon in which he notes that the Christmas festival had in Antioch been in existence only for ten years, "adds that at Rome it had been celebrated on the 25th of December from the first days of Christianity." Here also Mr. Growse has taken his information from a very unsafe source: for there is not a word of all that in the text of the sermon of the saint (Joan. Chrysost. Opp. II. 418, 419, Paris and Leipzig, 1835), as he does not mention either *Rome* or the *first days of Christianity*; what he says is more general and at the same time more restricted; he calls the festival new as well as old,—new because it had been introduced with us (πρὸς ἡμᾶς δὲ) only recently, old because it had been known to the inhabitants of the West of ancient time (παρὰ μὲν τοῖς τῶν ἑσπερίων οἰκοῦσιν ἀνθρώποις γυναιξομένη). Now to render ἀνθρώποις by "from the first days of Christianity" is certainly a very free and extended translation, whereas "Rome" alone does not suffice to cover "the

inhabitants of the West," the more so as Chrysostomos himself shortly after, in repeating his statement, tells us distinctly what he means by West, viz. all the countries from Thracia to Gades in Spain, καὶ ἀπὸθεν τοῖς ἀπὸ Θράκης μέχρι Γαδεירῶν οἰκῶσι κατὰδὸλος καὶ ἐπίσημος γέγονε. The *authenticity* of this passage I have given in Piper's words: "the Festival then came from the West to the East;" to enter more into the above details was not to the purpose of my essay.* Finally I cannot find words strong enough to express my indignation at the tone in which Mr. Growse speaks of my remarks about the question of a connection between the Madonna-cult and the worship of Isis, saying "that they can scarcely have been introduced except from a wanton desire to give offence;" he seems not to be aware of the full import of these insulting words, which heap on the scientific as well as moral character of an earnest scholar the highest possible abuse and dishonour. The very fact that I am striving through "several long columns" to get at the truth ought to have prevented Mr. Growse from throwing such foul dirt on my name. And this much the more as it is not at all, what he completely omits to mention, my own theory or hypothesis which he combats, for I am only quoting, and criticising all the while, the opinions of others, viz. M. Raoul Rochette and Mrs. Jameson; and he ought therefore to have directed his wrath not against me, but against these distinguished writers, both of whom, on the other hand, ought certainly to be secure in their graves from such an affront, even if Mr. Growse should be too much exasperated by that horrid idea to spare the living.

Allow me now to return also in a few words to my questions concerning Chaturāṅga in vol. I. p. 290. That Rādhākānta the friend of Sir W. Jones and disciple of Jagannātha, mentioned by the latter as standing at the head of his school, in the introduction to the *Vīśvābhāṣāgāruṇa*, v. 4 (see Colebrooke's *Digest of Hindu Law*, 1796; Madras, 1804, I. I), is different from the celebrated author of the *Śabdakalpādruma*, is self-evident from what I have said already before, but I had not succeeded in getting any further particulars about him till lately I met in my own *Catalogue of the Sanskrit MSS. of the Berlin Library*, p. 359, with the following note by Sir R. Chambers, dated Sept. 16th, 1785: "Rādhākānta Tarkavāṅśa informs me that this book is *Bhaktiratnāvalī*." We have here before us not only the second name of this Rādhākānta, but moreover a statement dated five years earlier than the paper of Sir W. Jones, and but two years later than the birth of Rādhā-

kānta Deva. The questions regarding the *Chaturāṅga* itself are now keenly debated with us, as the beautiful and excellent work of Dr. Antonius van der Linde, *Geschichte und Literatur des Schachspiels* (two large vols., Berlin, 1874), has drawn to it anew the attention of the learned, as well as the public at large. It would be very welcome if any new information on this noble play, the invention of which does so much credit to the imaginative power of the Hindu mind, could be got from Sanskrit sources. Dr. Bühler informs me that the manuscript of the *Māṇasollāsa* in his possession (see vol. IV. p. 83), which contains a chapter on it, is too defective to admit of a restoration of the text.

I am, dear Sir, truly yours,

A. WEBER.

Berlin, 13th April 1875.

COINS.

Sir D. Forsyth lately obtained some gold Byzantine coins (from A. D. 408—668) from the ruined cities round Kāshgarh, and a few large and old Chinese coins, with very elaborate inscriptions not yet deciphered. The most interesting is, however, a coin with, on one side, a loose horse within a circle, and, on the margin outside the circle, a Bactrian-Pali inscription, which Mr. E. Bayley, from a rubbing sent to Calcutta by General Cunningham, reads as *Mahādrūjasa vājradakrojjasa Mahādrūjasa (Sp)aramayasa*. The *Sp* is doubtful, but as the preceding word commonly occurs as a title of Spalirises in the coins hitherto known (Prinsep, ii. 204), there can, he thinks, be little doubt as to the correctness of the reading. But the curious point about the coin is that the other side is entirely filled with an inscription in old Chinese not yet deciphered. Among some silver Gupta coins obtained by Miss Baring at Faizābād, and presented by her to the British Museum, there is one very perfect Toramana, with a complete inscription and a date. This coin will be of interest, since Mr. E. Thomas's reading of the name Toramana on one of the coins of the later Gupta dynasty (Prinsep, i. p. 339) has recently been doubted by Prof. Kern. In Col. Gardner's collection of coins, which Mr. Bayley has examined, there are several interesting Kāshmirian coins which supply four new kings: viz. Parva Gupta, Tribhuvana Gupta, Rāma Deva, and Rāja Deva, besides one or two names not yet deciphered. General Cunningham has been working at the Barahat Tope, and has now recovered all that has been preserved, including

afterwards" is a good deal more than "but at second hand", "erst secundär," as the original has.

* Allow me to correct here a slight mistake in the translation of my note as given on page 51, l. 5, *infra*: "long

three gates and most of the railing. The local zamindars have presented the sculptures to the Indian Government, and it is hoped that they will soon be safely lodged in the Museum at Calcutta. The great merit of these sculptures is that the sculptor has been kind enough to label nearly all of them, so that they are easily identified. A large number of them represent scenes from various jātakas, or stories of Buddha's former existences. Amongst other interesting pieces of sculpture is the medallion bust of a "Rāja of Himavat," whose name, unfortunately, is lost.

NOTE.

A story similar to that quoted against "Persianized Hindi" at page 189 of the June part of the *Antiquary* is charged against the Vāṇiya method

of writing Gujarāṭī. The message received was

કક આજ મર ગયા છ ન કક કક છ

which was read as

કકો આજ મરી ગયો છે ને કાકી કુટે છે.

(Uncle has died to-day, and aunt bewails him.)

But it should have been

કકો આજમેર ગયો છે ને કાકી કેટે છે.

(is at Kṛt).

C. E. G. C.

[The joke alluded to in p. 189, note, has also several forms. There is an epigram of (we think) the younger Scaliger upon

" * * Gascones * * *

Quæ nihil aliud est vivere quam bibere"]

and we remember having read somewhere of certain Tribonian envoys who gave unintentional offence by the greeting "Semper bibat Imperator."—Ed.]

BOOK NOTICES.

GENERAL REPORT on the Administration of the Bombay Presidency for 1873-74. Printed at the Government Central Press: Bombay, 1875.

The red-letter chapters of last year's Report, which contain most of the matter interesting to readers of the *Indian Antiquary*, are not republished this year, which as regards the article on Physical Geography is perhaps prudent. Dr. Wilson's paper upon castes and languages, which we republished last year (vol. III. pp. 291 ff.), is one of those thus omitted. This year's Report, however, contains a paper upon the climate of Bombay by Mr. Chambers, F.R.S., Superintendent of the Observatory at Kulābā (p. 294), which is interesting in many ways, and remarkable for an extraordinary derivation of the term "Elephanta" applied to the thunderstorms which occur pretty generally throughout the Presidency (except in Sind) at the close of the monsoon (Mr. Chambers is mistaken in applying it to the "mango showers" which usher it in, and which are called Rohitohi pāñi), "from the fact of their reaching the town of Bombay from the direction of the island of Elephanta." The name of the island was given by the Portuguese, from the stone elephant which formerly stood there, and whose *disjecta membra* now ornament the approach to the Victoria Museum. The name of the storms is derived from the Hasti Nakshatra, or lunar mansion under the sign Hasti, commonly called by the Marāṭhās 'Hatti Nakshatra.' The Portuguese translated the vernacular term literally, and we have inherited it from them.

The Archaeological section (p. 568) we reprint

nearly in full, to show what has been accomplished and may be hoped for from the liberality of Government in this direction.

The Bombay Sanskrit Series, edited by Dr. Bühler and Dr. Kielhorn, has been enriched by three new numbers published during the year. Two of these contain new critical editions of works which have been published both in India and in Europe, and the third is the last number of Dr. Kielhorn's edition of Nāgoji-bhaṭṭa's difficult and famous grammatical work.

Dr. Bühler went on a three months' tour in Rājputāna to search for Sanskrit MSS., and visited Jodhpur, Jesalmir, Bikaner, and Bhātner. He appears to have been particularly successful in Jesalmir and Bikaner. In the former town he gained access to the ancient library of the Oswāl Jains, which enjoys a great reputation among native scholars on account of its supposed extent and importance. Dr. Bühler says regarding it:—"The MSS. which are now found in the Bhāṇḍar belong to three classes. The first consists of palm-leaf MSS., the oldest of which is dated Śaṅkṛvat 1160, or A.D. 1104, while the youngest belongs to the beginning of the 15th century. To the second class belong a number of very old and beautiful paper MSS. dating from the 14th and 15th centuries, which, according to the special lists accompanying them, are votive offerings given by rich pilgrims. The third class contains modern paper MSS. which formerly were the property of monks who died at Jesalmir without spiritual descendants."

"It might be expected that a Jaina collection like the *Jesālmīr Brihajjñānakosha* (great storehouse of learning) would be composed entirely of religious books of the sect to which it belongs. But that is by no means the case. Fully one-third of the MSS. contain Brāhmanical or profane works by Jaina authors."

"Dr. Bühler has made arrangements to obtain copies of all the important new works found in his library. He thinks also that careful collations of all the old Brāhmanical MSS. should be made, as the present editions are based on much later and less trustworthy MSS. The total number of MSS. copied or purchased in Rājputāna is upwards of two hundred. Besides, thirty MSS. have been acquired in Gujarāt; several of these have been sent to Sanskritists in India and in Europe; and Dr. Bühler has an edition of the *Vikramāṅkavāya* in the press."

In the Educational part of the report it is to be noticed that the Superintendent of the School of Art states that "the Ajantā Expedition and Mr. Burgess's explorations have affected his returns by drawing off some of his best pupils." As they could hardly be better employed, we will not lament over the falling off in the returns, and it is pleasant to observe that Mr. Griffiths considers "the art-experience gained" to have been "of great practical value to the students who have been employed in copying and restoring" the Ajantā paintings, although we regret to observe that several of the students employed in the expedition have since suffered from fever,—which illustrates the dangers and difficulties under which researches of the sort are carried out, and which, perhaps, are not always fully appreciated by those who have not undergone them.

"All the paintings brought from Ajantā in the preceding year were photographed, and the originals, after exhibition at the Town Hall and Victoria Museum, were sent home to the Indian Museum. The Government of India have now sanctioned a repetition of the expedition at a cost of Rs. 5,000 yearly until the work is finished; and since the close of the year under report Mr. Griffiths has been sent to England to study the latest processes for the restoration of the paintings, and to make inquiries as to the possibility of removing those paintings which are already partly detached, or which could be easily detached."

"ARCHÆOLOGY.—During the past year a regular survey of the architectural and other archæological remains in the Bombay Presidency was commenced by Mr. Burgess. This survey originated in the despatch of His Grace the Duke of Argyll, No. 173, of 11th October 1871, in which it was proposed that arrangements should be made by

this Government to carry into effect certain suggestions which had been made for the production of a complete work on the Rock-Cut Temples of Western India.

"A detailed scheme was accordingly drawn out by the Honourable Mr. Gibbs, was fully concurred in by His Excellency in Council, and recommended to the Government of India in this Government's letter No. ²¹²⁸/_{206-a}, dated 24th July 1873. This contemplated the employment of Mr. Burgess on this special duty for about three years, during which time he was to spend six months of the dry weather in the field, and six months at home elaborating the notes he had made during his tour, preparing the plans and drawings, and printing the photographs. The Government of India had in 1868 set apart Rs. 13,000 for this work in the Bombay Presidency, and this sum was not exceeded in the scheme proposed. But it was pointed out that with more liberal allowance for establishment the field work would be carried on much more rapidly, and in the end the work would be proportionately cheaper. It was also proposed that the operations should extend over Haidarābād, the Berārs and Central Provinces, in addition to the Bombay Presidency, and that whilst the main object of the survey would be the caves and other Buddhist remains scattered over this extensive area, careful surveys of some at least of the most interesting Brāhmanical and Jaina remains should be included.

"The scheme was sanctioned by the Government of India on the understanding that the expense should not exceed the authorized grant of Rs. 13,000, and on the condition that the operations should be restricted to the Bombay Presidency." The latter limitation, however, excluded the Ajantā, Ellorā, and other groups of caves just outside the Bombay Presidency, and thus rendered impossible the production of a complete work on the rock-cut temples of Western India. This has been remedied since, and Haidarābād and the Central Provinces have now been added to Bombay and Berār as the field to be surveyed.

"Mr. Burgess did not take charge of the duties of Archæological Surveyor and Reporter till the 15th January 1874, and his actual work in the field did not begin till the 2nd February. He concluded it on the 16th April, as, owing to a thunder-storm, he apprehended his materials might be injured by rain. His first season was thus a very short one, and in addition he had other difficulties to contend against. He states that the means at his disposal were too limited for the organization of a proper staff, and that the allowance for photography in particular was manifestly inadequate."

"On the whole, however, it appears that a good

beginning has been made, and the amount of work done in so short a time is considerable. Mr. Burgess confined himself during the season to the Kanarese districts. The caves at Badāmi and Aiholli or Aiwali, of which hitherto so very little was known, were surveyed, as also the ancient Jaina and Śaiva temples at Belgāh, Pattadakal, and Aiwali; and such other places of importance in an archaeological point of view as were easily accessible were also visited. "Between 30 and 35 inscriptions were copied, some of them very successfully, by paper casts. 54 photographs in all were taken. The following list of them is here given, as it shows in a brief space the field over which the operations of the year extended:—

1. Belgāh.—Temple No. 1, outside the Commissariat Stores. 2. Temple No. 2, inside the Commissariat compound. 3. Roof of Temple No. 2. 4. Inner door of the same. 5. Gateway of the fort.

6. Old Temple at Konur. 7. Konur.—Temple of Māhalingēśvara on the Ghātprabhā. 8. Temple of Māhalingēśvara from the west. 9. Inscription in the same. 10. Falls of Gokāk, and Temples. 11. Cromlech or Dolmen No. 1, near Konur. 12. No. 2, in the jungle. 13. No. 3, in a field.

14. Kadaroli.—Old Temple in the bed of the Māprabhā. 15. Inscribed stone or Śilāsāsanam in the village of Kadaroli.* 16. Sāmpgāh Mosque. 17. Bail Hongal.—Old Temple† 18. Saundatti. A Śilāsāsanam.

19. Huli.—Front of the Temple of Panchalingēśvara. 20. Side view of do. 21. Old Temple on the face of the hill. 22. Old Temples at a tank.

23. Manali.—Temples of Panchalingēśvara. 24. Sculptured stones in the same. 25. A Śilāsāsanam at Panchalingēśvara.

26. Badāmi.—Front of Cave I. 27. 18-armed Śiva &c. at Cave I. 28. Front of Cave II. 29. Vishnu, &c. in the veranda of Cave II. 30. Cave III. from the north-east. 31. Cave III. from the north-west. 32. Cave III.—Pilaster and sculpture at the east end of the veranda. 33. Garuḍa and figures under the roof of the entrance, with brackets of central columns of the veranda. 34. West end of the veranda with figure of Nṛsiṃha. 35. East end of the veranda with Vishnu on Ānanta. 36. Varāha with Prithvi and pilaster with the old inscription.‡ 37. Virabhadra at the west side of the cave. 38. Cave IV.—The Jaina Cave. 39. West end of the veranda and figure of Parśvanātha, columns, &c. in Cave IV. 40. East end of the veranda; a Jina, columns, &c. 41. View of the old Fort of Badāmi with several Temples (from two points).

42. Aiholli.—Brahmanical Cave and Monolith.

43. Figures in the south corner of the Cave. 44. Sculptures in the Brahmanical Cave, north corner of the hall. 45. Ditto east corner. 46. The Durga Temple. 47. Pillar in the porch of the Durga Temple. 48. Door of the same. 49. Sculptured slabs lying outside. 50. Siṃha, &c. and corner of basement of Temple. 51. Two inscriptions on the gateway of the same. 52. Columns in one of the old deserted Temples in the village. 53. Ruined Gateway to a Temple near the village. 54. Group of Temples and Dolmen at the same place.

"In his *Report*,—which has been separately printed," at the India Office, illustrated by 21 photographs of buildings, &c., 6 of inscriptions, and 29 plates of plans, details, inscriptions, and sculptures—Mr. Burgess has "given a detailed description of the remains he visited during the season." "He is of opinion that the materials which he has yet collected do not adequately represent the antiquities of the Kanarese country, but only open up a field which would repay a much wider and more detailed survey."

"The antiquarian researches of Mr. J. F. Fleet, C.S., are also deserving of mention. During the year under review he examined the inscriptions at Gadak, in the Dambal Talukā of the Dhārwar District, and published an account of them, together with a transcription and translation of the largest of them,§ which relates to the kings of the Hoysala dynasty. He afterwards employed himself in preparing for publication some inscriptions previously collected relating to the Raṭṭa chieftains of Saundatti and Belgāh, the Yādava kings of Devagiri, and the Vijayanagara dynasty, and in the early part of 1874 copied some fresh inscriptions at Naregal in the Dhārwar District, relating to chieftains of the Sindavāṇā, subordinate to the Chālukya kings." His paper on the Raṭṭa chieftains of Saundatti and Belgāh is printed in the *Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society*, vol. X., but the others are not yet ready for publication.

"Finally it may be mentioned that it is now proposed to carry out a scheme for the collection and preservation of ancient Kanarese inscriptions which was suggested by His Grace the Duke of Argyll in his despatch No. 4, dated 27th January 1870. This scheme contemplated the employment of a competent scholar to revise the transcripts of the Kanarese inscriptions prepared by Sir W. Elliot, and to add others not included in the collection, and it was suggested that when the revision and additions are completed, the bulk of them should be printed in India in modern Kanarese; only those should be photolithographed which, in the opinion of the editor, present double

* See vol. I. p. 141.

† Vide ante, p. 115.

‡ See vol. III. p. 305.

§ See *Ind. Ant.* vol. II. pp. 296–303.—Ed.

readings, or are interesting for their great antiquity. In a minute recorded by the Honourable Mr. Gibbs on the 4th June last, it is proposed that the work be divided into two portions—(1) the copying the inscriptions; (2) their decipherment and publication. As regards the first portion it is considered that the best plan is to have copies (Fr. estampages) taken by means of the stout unsized paper used by those *sarcants* who have been engaged on similar duty in Egypt. It is recommended that the second part of the duty should be entrusted to Mr. Fleet."

W. F. SINCLAIR.

KERALACHARIY, or the Practice of Malabar.—Calicut, Collectorate Press (19 pp. 4to), 1866.

This small pamphlet contains the sixty-four Anāchārams, also called the sixty-four Āchārams; for although they are Anāchārams in the larger portion of the Presidency, they are considered Āchārams in the land of Kerala or Malabar—originally the country now comprised under the names of Kānarā, Malabār, Cochin, and Trāvankōr—the narrow strip between the Western Ghāts and the Arabian Sea, stretching from Gokarṇa in North Kānarā to Cape Kumārī. They are precepts given by Śrī Śaṅkarāchārya of Śringerī—one of the most celebrated teachers of the Vedānta philosophy—after consulting the *Dharmaśāstra*. They are embodied in twenty-six Sanskrit ślokas. These every Malayāli considers himself strictly bound to attend to and revere.

In the pamphlet—printed, as the title-page and preface tell us, for the edification of the public—are also given Malayālam equivalents for the Sanskrit words in the ślokas, with a rendering in Malayālam in parallel columns. Before, however, giving an abstract translation of the Āchārams, something regarding the author may be interesting.

Śaṅkarāchārya was the son of Mahādeva or Śiva by a Brāhman widow. From his very boyhood he was well instructed, so that in time he became the most learned man of his day, to whom all looked up for instruction and advice. As he was born of a Brāhman widow, the Brāhman of the village refused to join in the ceremonies attending his mother's death. On this occasion he therefore dug the pit (*bhūmakūṇḍa*), cut the body of his mother into pieces and burnt them. The ceremonies that ought to be performed by a junior member of the family were done by Śūdras, so that from this period began the custom of "no ceremony for Brāhman without the assistance of a Śūdra," and *vice versa*.





By order of the sage Govinda Sanyāsi, Śaṅkarāchārya wrote a history of Kerala in 24,000 *granthams*.

He divided the Malayālis into 68 or 72 (P) sects, assembled the sixty-four village Brāhmanas, allotted their particular duty to each class as well as to other castes, laid down rules for the daily observance of each and every class of his division, and fixed penalties on those who infringe the caste privileges.

This great man was noted even during his day. There is a large and celebrated pagoda at Tiruvethur, four miles to the north of Madras, built by his followers, where worship is still offered to the gods by Malabār or Namburi Brāhmanas.

Buchanan notices the three appearances of Śaṅkarāchārya in his *Journey through Mysore and Malabar*, vol. III. 91 (edition of 1807).

Being the offspring of a god, he is considered an incarnation of the deity himself, and several wonders are attributed to him. The following is an abstract translation of each of the precepts, embodied in twenty-six ślokas:—

1. Do not clean your teeth with a stick.
2. Do not bathe (in a tank) with the clothes you wear.
3. Do not wipe your body with the cloth you have worn.
4. Do not bathe before sunrise.
5. Do not cook rice, &c. before bathing.
6. Do not use the previous day's water—literally, the water drawn and kept (in a vessel) the previous day.
7. Do not think of the attainment of any particular object when bathing.
8. Do not use the remainder of the water in the vessel kept for one purpose for another.
9. Bathe if you touch certain low castes—Śūdras,—lit. He who desires holiness, or not to be polluted, should bathe whenever he touches low-caste men, &c.
10. Bathe if you approach certain lower castes—Chandālas (pariahs).
11. Bathe if you touch wells and tanks touched by the Chandālas.
12. Do not tread with your foot on the ground cleaned with a broom before water is sprinkled on it.
13. This is the mode of putting holy ashes on the forehead:—A Brāhman should make a figure in the form of a long *gōpi*, as ; a Kshatriya a semi-circle, as ; a Vaiśya a circular figure, as ; and a Śūdra three parallel lines, as .
14. Repeat to yourself the *mantras* when performing any ceremony of which a *mantra* is an accompaniment.
15. Do not eat stale rice, i.e. do not eat in the morning what has been prepared the previous day.

16. Do not eat the *uchekkishā* (what remains in the dish after one's meal is over).

17. Do not eat what has been offered as *śaśvedya* to Śiva.

18. Do not eat meals served with the bare palm; i.e. rice, ghee, and curry must be served with a spoon-like utensil.

19. Do not use buffalo's ghee and milk for *homas* (sacrificial ceremonies).

20. Do not use buffalo's ghee and milk for obituary anniversaries.

21. Take your meals so that there may be no remainder at the end on (1) the leaf, (2) the hand when each morsel is swallowed.

22. Do not chew betel-leaf when you are unclean.

23. Lead the life of a Brahmachāri (after the *Upaṇayana* ceremony), perform the *homas*, and the sixteen various ceremonies prescribed for him.

24. Give the dues in the shape of money presents to your tutors.

25. Do not recite the *Vedas* in villages and streets.

26. Do not sell females, in marriage.

27. Do not stick to any vow solely for the attainment of any one aim.

28. If a female touches a girl who has just attained puberty—before the holy water (*paṇyā*) is sprinkled on her—she must bathe before taking her food, being unclean. If a male Brāhmaṇ does so, changing the holy thread and purification by holy water are requisite.

29. Brāhmaṇs should not weave.

30. Do not wash your clothes yourself.

31. Kshatriyas, &c. should not—Brāhmaṇs only should—worship Rudrākṣa beads or the *linga* of Śiva.

32. Brāhmaṇs should not accept the *maṇḍa* offerings of a Śūdra's *śrāddha*.

33. Performance of *śrāddha* is necessary for a deceased father, father's father, mother's father, and their wives.

34. Performance of *śrāddha* on full-moon days is necessary to ingratiate the *Pitṛis* or ancestors.

35. Perform the *śapīṇḍī* ceremony at the prescribed time.

36. Keep your head unshaved for a complete year, as a vow, on the death of your father and mother.

37. Death anniversaries are to be performed by reference to the *nakṣatra* (lunar mansion) on which the person died.

38. If you become polluted by a female relative bringing forth, at the time when you are to perform a *śapīṇḍī* ceremony, perform it after the pollution has left you, not otherwise.

39. An adopted son should perform the anniver-

sary ceremonies of the deaths of his natural father and mother.

40. The corpse should be burnt in the person's own soil, not in that of another person.

41. Sanyāsīs should not see women.

42. Have always a love and regard for the future world.

43. Do not perform *śrāddhas* for departed Sanyāsīs.

44. Brāhmaṇ women should not see men other than their husbands.

45. Brāhmaṇ females should not stir out (of their houses) without maid-servants.

46. Wear only white clothes.

47. Do not bore a hole in your nose.

48. If a Brāhmaṇ drinks (liquor) he loses his caste.

49. If a Brāhmaṇ takes to wife another (i.e. other than his wife) Brāhmaṇ woman, he loses his caste.

50. Within the walls of a pagoda, idols should not be consecrated, nor temples endowed to the ghosts of ancestors who have died violent (or accidental) deaths.

51. Śūdras should not touch the idol in a pagoda.

52. What has been offered to one deity cannot be again offered to another. (The same object should not constitute offerings to two separate deities.)

53. Marriage cannot be performed without a *koma*, or burnt-offering—the casting of clarified butter, &c. into the sacred fire as an offering to the gods accompanied with prayers, and invocations according to the object of the sacrifice.

54. A Brāhmaṇ should not worship another Brāhmaṇ lying prostrate on the belly.

55. Neither is it proper that they should worship (make *namaskāra*) to another, i.e. of a different caste.

56. Do not perform the sacrifice of the cow.

57. Such a state of things should not exist that some are Śaivas and some Vaiṣṇavas. The Keralaites are to hold both in equal veneration.

58. Wear only one holy thread—*pura-nūl*.

59. The eldest son alone can marry.

60. The offering to the *pitṛis* should be of rice.

61. Kshatriyas, &c. in performing their *śrāddhas* should consider uncles in the place of fathers (Brāhmaṇ).

62. Among the Kshatriyas, &c. succession to property is in the line of nephews.

63. Widows should observe the rules of *sanyāsa* (strict celibacy).

64. There should be no *sañj*.

N. SANKUNNI WARTAR.

Ernakulam.

SANTALI FOLKLORE.

BY REV. F. T. COLE, TALJHARI, RAJMAHAL.

The Tale of Kanran and Guja.

KANRAN and Guja were brothers; of these two Kanran was the elder. They used to go every day to the jungles for the purpose of digging up roots, on which they subsisted.

One day Kanran said to his brother, "Look at the sun and tell me how high up he is." Guja having mounted a tall tree looked over the tops of the other trees in the jungle, and perceived one of the heavenly bodies setting, and in the opposite direction another rising: from this he concluded that it was drawing towards evening.

They again set to work and dug up a quantity of roots. In thus doing they soon became very weary. Suddenly the thought struck them, "We have dug up the roots, but where is the fire by which to cook them?" Kanran then said to his brother, "We are in a fix; what shall we do?" The younger brother again mounted a high tree and took a good look round, to see if he could discover any signs of a fire in the distance. After some time he saw a slight glimmering of light.

Descending quickly from the tree, he said to his brother, "I see a light shining in the distance." Then, tying up their roots, they immediately set off in that direction. With great difficulty they reached the spot, and discovered that it was a fire burning before a cave. Going nearer, they saw that the cave was a tiger's lair, and saw a large tiger inside. Calling to the animal, Kanran said, "Uncle, is any one at home?" The tiger replied, "Yes, nephews, I am here; come in and sit down, I have killed a fat ox and am now eating him." They said, "We have been busy all day digging up roots, but are unable to cook them for want of a fire."

The tiger, after having finished his repast, came outside the cave, and the three seated themselves around the fire. The brothers then roasted their roots and asked the tiger whether he would not join them in their supper. Taking some pieces of charcoal from the fire, they handed them to the tiger, keeping the roasted roots for themselves. The tiger remarked, "I can't manage to eat these without

a great deal of crunching, but you seem to eat them as if they were quite soft." The brothers answered, "We picked out those that were well baked for you, and are contenting ourselves with the half-cooked roots." Having finished supper, they proposed asking one another riddles. The tiger said, "Can you tell me the meaning of this—One I will eat for breakfast, and another like it for supper?" The brothers, hearing this, felt sure it was something connected with them, but, pretending not to understand, they replied, "O uncle, we cannot tell. As you have puzzled us, we will also try and do the same to you—One will twist the tail, the other will wring the ear." The tiger also perceived that this was said with regard to him, and in great terror was about to make his escape, when Kanran seized his tail, which in the ensuing straggle was twisted off. This the brothers roasted, and found it a delicious morsel. As the tiger was escaping, the brothers said to each other, "If he goes to the river, we shall not be able to follow him, but if to the hills we shall be able easily to secure him." The tiger, overhearing this conversation, fled towards the river. This was exactly what the brothers wished, for they knew that if the tiger escaped to the jungle they would be unable to overtake him.

On the following day they set out in the direction of the river. Following the footprints of the tiger, they found him in a small patch of jungle close to the water. They concerted a plan, namely, that Kanran should hide behind a tree, while Guja drove the animal in that direction. Being thus driven from his hiding-place, the tiger was caught by the lie-in-wait, and was beaten to death by the brothers, as they supposed. They tied his legs to a pole and were carrying him to their home, when they perceived that he occasionally opened his eyes. Putting him down they again beat him till they thought he was dead. After carrying him a little further they noticed that he still opened his eyes. Giving him another severe beating they concluded that he must be now dead. But finding they were again mistaken

they gave it up in despair, threw him down and left him. Being at some distance from home, they went to a waterfall to quench their thirst, and afterwards climbed up a *tāl* tree which grew on the banks of the water, and there they remained for safety during the night.

The tiger, being left alone, released himself and set off to cull together his tiger acquaintances, in order to be revenged on the brothers who had thus so grievously ill-treated him. They assembled in large numbers and searched for a long time for Kanran and Guja, but in vain. At length, becoming tired, they gave up the search and began to abuse the poor-tailless tiger in no measured terms.

The tigers, impelled by thirst, went to the waterfall to drink. It so happened that the tailless tiger went close to the very *tāl* tree in which the brothers were seated. Seeing their shadows reflected in the water, he exclaimed, "Come here, they are drowned in this deep water." The other tigers inquired, "Are you serious, or are you making fun of us? If you are joking you shall suffer for it." Finding it was true, they ordered the tailless tiger to dive into the water and fetch out the brothers. The tiger dived till he was tired. At last, being thoroughly exhausted, he got out of the water and saw the reflection of the men as plainly as before; again he dived, but with no better success. Being completely worn out with his exertions and very cold, he began to sneeze. While in the act of doing so, he happened to look up, and there he discovered the brothers quietly seated in the *tāl*-tree.

Having announced this fact to the rest of the tigers, they held a general consultation as to how they might reach the brothers. The tailless tiger at length suggested the following plan:—"Let us stand one on the other," said he, "till we get high enough to reach them." This plan being approved by all, they directed the tailless tiger to take his stand at the bottom; then they climbed one upon the other, till they could almost touch the brothers. At this crisis, Kanran called out to his brother, "Give me your axe, I will kill the tailless tiger." The latter, hearing this, struggled to make his escape, and in so doing upset the whole party, who were resting upon him, while they in their fall crushed the poor tailless tiger to death, and overcome by terror they fled. After this,

the two brothers descended from the tree and began to cut up the dead tiger. Kanran selected some of the most delicate parts for his own share, but Guja seized the entrails. Kanran, seeing this, asked his brother why he was so foolish as to choose the entrails and to leave the rest. Guja quietly replied, "Brother, I am quite satisfied with what I have." Then they took their departure, and after travelling some distance found a suitable tree on which to rest. It so happened that a king's son was just passing on the way to his father-in-law's house, in order to fetch home his wife, and he lay down to rest under this same tree.

All this time Guja had been holding the entrails of the tiger in his hands. At last he said to his brother, "I can't keep this any longer." Kanran answered, "What shall we do then? If you let it fall, we shall be discovered and shall certainly be killed." At length, Guja, unable to hold it any longer, let it fall on the king's son who was lying fast asleep at the foot of the tree. Awakened by the blow, he arose, greatly dismayed at seeing blood, &c. upon his body, and imagined that some accident must have happened to himself; he therefore hastened from the spot. His servants, seeing him run at a mad pace, immediately followed. The two brothers quickly came down from the tree and began to plunder the baggage, which had been left behind in the fright. Kanran seized upon the finest garments, while Guja selected a large drum. Being upbraided by his brother for thus losing such a splendid opportunity of enriching himself, he replied, "Brother, this will suit my purpose."

They now proceeded on their journey. Guja was so much pleased with his drum that he kept on beating it all day long. Unfortunately the drum-head split and thus was rendered useless. But Guja, instead of throwing it away, continued to carry it about with him. Afterwards they found a bees'-nest. Guja refreshed himself with the honey and filled his drum with bees. Having done this, they continued their journey, till they arrived at a river-ghât. When the villagers came out at eventide to draw water, Guja let fly some of his bees amongst them. The people, being much stung, ran home and told how that two strangers had arrived and had greatly annoyed them by allowing bees to sting them. The villagers, headed

by their chief and armed with bows, advanced to the attack, determined to be avenged upon the strangers. They commenced shooting, but the brothers, hidden behind their drum, remained unharmed. After all their arrows had been shot, Guja opened the hole of his drum, and the bees streamed out like a cart-ropes. The villagers now prayed to be released from this plague of bees, and their chief promised to give one of them his daughter in marriage, also a yoke of oxen and a piece of land. Guja then calling his bees forced them again into the drum. The chief performed his promise. Kanran was married to his daughter, and he cultivated the land which his father-in-law gave him.

One day, for some reason, Kanran was obliged to leave home for a short time, and upon his departure gave Guja this parting injunction:—"If," said he, "the plough become at any time entangled in the ground, and the ox be unable to get along, strike it with your axe." Guja imagined that his brother was speaking of the ox, so when the plough became entangled he struck the ox with his axe and killed him, instead of cutting away the obstruction, as his brother had intended. Kanran, returning home about this time, was informed by his wife of what had happened. Upon hearing it, he became greatly enraged, and ran to the spot, intending to kill his brother. Guja, however, becoming aware of his brother's intention, immediately snatched up the entrails of the ox and fled. Seeing a tree having a large hole in the trunk, he got inside, having first covered himself with the entrails. Kanran, arriving at the spot, thrust his spear into the hole repeatedly, and when he drew it out he perceived that it was smeared with blood. He exclaimed, "I have speared him to death, now he won't kill any more of my oxen," and returned home.

Guja was not at all hurt, the spear not having touched him,—the blood was not his, but that of the ox. Having satisfied himself that no one was near, he came out of the hole, and crept secretly into his brother's house. Climbing to the top of the house, he sat there perched upon one of the beams. A little while afterwards Kanran entered, bringing with him portions of the flesh of the slain ox, also some rice. Having closed the door, he commenced to offer a sacrifice to his brother Guja's memory. The usual ceremonies having been performed,

he addressed the soul of his departed brother in the following manner:—"O Guja, receive these offerings. I killed you indeed, but don't be angry with me for doing so. Condescend to accept this meat and rice." Guja, from his hiding-place, replied, "Very well, lay them down." Kanran, hearing this voice, was greatly astonished, but was afraid to look in the direction from which the sound proceeded. Going out, he inquired of the villagers as to whether it was possible for a dead man to speak. They told him that such was sometimes the case.

Whilst Kanran was talking to the neighbours, Guja escaped secretly by a back door, taking with him the meat and rice. He had not gone far before he encountered some men who, he afterwards learned, were professional thieves. He divided his meat and rice with them, and they became great friends. Guja became their companion in their plundering expeditions. However, afterwards coming to words, they beat Guja severely, tied his hands and feet, and were carrying him off to the river with the intention of drowning him. But on the way they were compelled by hunger to go in search of food, and not wishing to be burdened with Guja they set him down bound under a tree. A shepherd passing that way, and attracted by his crying, inquired who he was and why he was crying. Guja answered, "I am a king's son, and am being taken against my will to be married to a king's daughter for whom I have not the slightest affection." The shepherd answered, "I am indeed sorry for you, but let me go instead of you, I will gladly marry her." So the shepherd quickly released Guja, and allowed himself to be bound in his place. The thieves, soon afterwards returning, took up the supposed Guja, and in spite of the shepherd's protestations that he was not Guja they threw him into the river. In the meantime Guja fled, driving before him the shepherd's cows. The thieves afterwards met him again, and seeing the cows inquired of Guja whence he had procured them. Guja answered, "Don't you remember you threw me into the river? there it was I got all these. Let me throw you in too, and you will get as many cows as you wish." This proposition meeting with general approbation, they suffered themselves to be bound and thrown into the river, where, as a natural consequence, all were drowned.

THE TWO BROTHERS: A MANIPURI STORY.

BY G. H. DAMANT, B.A., B.C.S.

In a certain country there lived a king named Hemanga Sen; his queen was called Anangā Manjuri. He had a very large and beautiful palace. One day the queen took a stool into the courtyard and sat down. Now it happened that the mate of a sparrow was just dead, leaving two young ones only hatched nine days, and he, thinking he could not bring them up alone, determined to take another mate: so he searched and brought one, and built her a nest in the courtyard, and put her into it with the young ones of his first mate, and then went away to look for food. In the meantime the new mate, remembering that the young ones were not hers, pushed them out of the nest with her feet, and they fell in front of the queen, and their bodies split open and they died.

Anangā Manjuri was very sorry to see this, and thought to herself, "When their wives die, men have very little consideration for their children and grandchildren. If I die, my husband will take another wife, who will treat my little sons Turi and Basanta just in this way, and will kill them." So she wept very much, and took the two young sparrows and showed them to the king, and told him how they had perished, and asked him not to treat her sons in the same way if she died. The king told her she was not likely to die, and promised he would never ill-treat her sons; and the young sparrows he threw away.

Five years after this the queen's time came, and she fell ill and died, and the king was much grieved, more especially as his sons were so young. His distress was so great that for many days he would not hear of marrying again, but his men and women slaves continually urged him to take another wife, saying there was no prosperity in a kingdom in which there was no queen, and all his subjects said the same thing. At last the king could no longer withstand their entreaties, and consented, and told them to look out for a suitable match for him. During this time his two sons had become old enough to play at hockey* and were continually amusing themselves at the game. The subjects found a suitable wife

for the king, and they were married, and he brought her to the palace. After she had been there some days she began to think that there was no use in her remaining with the king, because Turi and Basanta, the children of his first wife, were still alive, and if she had any children they would not ascend the throne, and that she must hit upon some plan to kill them. So she thought over it all day, whether she was eating, drinking, sleeping, or walking, till at last she devised a scheme,—to pretend that she was ill and could only be cured by bathing in the blood of Turi and Basanta. So she called a wise man and said to him aside in a solitary place, "I have called you in because I am ill, and you must tell the king that I shall soon be well if I bathe in the blood of Turi and Basanta." Saying this she took gold and silver from the treasury and gave it him, and from that day she gave up eating and drinking, and pretended to be ill; and when she had not eaten for a month her body was very thin and emaciated, and she seemed to be really ill. The king ordered the wise man to be called, and sent a slave to fetch him, and when he came the king told him to examine the queen and see what was the matter with her, and to give her medicine to cure her. So the wise man examined the queen, and came back and told the king that she was very ill, and would certainly die unless she was properly treated. The king told him to apply proper medicines, but he said the remedy could not be obtained, so it was of no use thinking about it. The king pressed him very much to tell it, and promised that he would really have it done, whatever it was. So he said, "You must kill your two sons Turi and Basanta, and make the queen bathe in their blood, and she will be cured." When the queen heard the wise man say this, she pretended to be very ill, and rolled from side to side in her bed calling out "I am dying, I am dying." The king could not help believing her, and ordered his sons to be killed. Now the two boys, with their slaves, were gone out to play at hockey, and other slaves were sent to look for them; but they, being tired with play, had gone

* The national game of the Manipuris: it is sometimes played on horseback, and sometimes on foot.

into the house of the woman who nursed them while their mother was alive, to drink some water, and the slaves, armed with dacos and bows and arrows, came and found them here, and told them how the king had ordered them to be killed that the queen might bathe in their blood. Turi, who was a little the bigger, wept very much at hearing this, and lamented his ill fate, but his younger brother Basanta did not understand that he was to be killed, and went on playing. So the king's slaves put Turi and Basanta in front of them and went away. On the road Turi said to him, "Sirs, do not kill my little brother, only kill me; he does not understand anything about it, and you see he is still laughing." He fell at their feet and entreated them much, till at last they felt pity for him, and one of them proposed to let the boys go, and kill a dog and put its blood in a *chuanga* and take it to the king instead. The other slaves agreed to this; and all went together into a lonely forest, where they killed the dog and released Turi and Basanta, telling them they must never return to the kingdom, as the king their father would suppose them to be dead. So they returned to the king with the dog's blood, and told him it was the blood of his sons, and so made the queen bathe in it, and as there was nothing really the matter with her she was very soon well, and the king was much pleased at her recovery.

In the meantime Turi and Basanta travelled a long way, and became very hungry and thirsty, so that they plucked young leaves off the trees to eat. They journeyed on till sunset, when they stopped beneath a tree for the night, and the elder brother told the younger to lie down and he would keep watch. The younger brother spread his cloth on the ground and was soon asleep, while Turi sat at the foot of the tree and collected some wood, and struck a light by rubbing sticks together, and made a fire. Now a pair of parrots had perched in that tree, and about midnight the cock called to the hen: "Listen, wife! What will happen to the man who eats you?" And she answered: "The man who eats me will first experience great distress, and afterwards great happiness; but what will happen to the man who eats you?" The cock replied: "He will

be very happy and will be made king." Turi heard all that the two parrots had said, and he took a knife from his cloth and made a bow and arrow, and killed both of them at one shot, and they fell to the ground.

He roasted them while his brother Basanta was still asleep, but, as he did not wish to eat them both himself, he put them aside till his brother should wake.

A little after midnight he became very sleepy, and, as there were many tigers, bears, and wild boars in the jungle, he woke his brother and told him to keep watch, but he was so sleepy himself that he quite forgot to eat the birds he had roasted. Basanta afterwards found them, and, thinking his brother had put them there for him, he put the cock aside and ate the hen, which was fated to bring sorrow upon him, and when he had finished eating, morning came. Turi rose up, and Basanta said he had eaten one bird himself, and put the other aside for him: so Turi ate the one by which happiness was promised. After they had eaten, the two brothers set out for another country, and travelled together for a long way till the sun became very hot, and Basanta feeling thirsty asked his brother for water, but Turi told him they could not find it there on the top of a mountain, and they must go on a little farther. So they went on till Basanta grew so hungry and thirsty that he could not move another step, and he sat down on the mountain and asked his brother to search for water for him, and Turi went to look for it.

Now the king of that country was dead, and his principal elephant had gone into the jungles to search for a new king.* Turi, hearing the sound of water, had gone in the same direction, and as he was coming down the side of the mountain he met the elephant, who determined to make him king and stood before him in the path. Turi went to one side to pass, but the elephant followed him to the same side and then sat down in front of him, and continued to follow him and sit before him, so that the boy might climb on his back. At last Turi told him that he was going to search for water for his brother Basanta, and asked him to leave the road. The elephant told him to climb on his back and he would take him; but as soon as Turi mounted, the animal took him

* This was a common custom, or at all events is supposed to be so: conf. *Ind. Ant.* vol. III. p. 11.

straight towards the country where there was no king. Turi wept very much at the thought of leaving his younger brother in that desert place to die for want of water, and he tore the cloth he was wearing into small pieces and threw them down to mark the road, and called on all the gods to protect his brother; and all the time the elephant continued to take him away.

In the meantime Basanta wondered why his brother did not return, and began to think a tiger must have killed him. And so he remained for about eight hours, but still his brother did not come; and he lamented his ill fate, not knowing what to do all alone in that jungle, nor in what direction to go, but he determined to try and find his brother at all hazards. So he started on his way crying, "Brother, brother!" all through the forest, but as the elephant was taking him away to be a king Turi could give no answer. In the course of his search Basanta came on the footsteps of his brother and the tracks of the elephant, and could not help thinking that the beast must have killed him. A little way further on he found the pieces of cloth; he did not understand that his brother had thrown them down to mark the way, but thought the elephant after killing him must have torn his clothes to pieces.

Now the elephant had arrived with Turi in the country where there was no king, and all the people turned out to see their new ruler,—women, youths, old men, all assembled to greet him, and prepared sweetmeats, *pān*, betelnut, rice, oil, incense, *ghāṭ*, and lighted candles, and filled pots of earth and brass with water, and put them before him, and, wishing him happiness and prosperity, prostrated themselves before him. Turi was so pleased to find that the elephant had not taken him away to kill him, but to put him on the throne and give him men and women servants, that he quite forgot his brother was left in the jungle, and he began to sit in court every day, and was just and merciful; and in this way a month passed by, till Basanta, tracking his way by the pieces of cloth, came to his brother's capital. As he had not eaten for a long time, he was very thin, and dirty besides, and for clothes he wore the bark of a tree; and, standing at the door of the palace, he asked the porters whether they had heard or seen anything of his brother Turi. They were so much displeased at hearing their king spoken of in such a way

that the jemadār ordered the others to beat him with a cane. He seized their hands and feet and implored them not to beat him any more, so the jemadār went and told the king that there was a madman standing at the gate, and asked what was to be done with him. The king ordered him to be put in jail. So Basanta was taken away and thrown into prison, where he remained a long time, and he thought he must be fated to endure all these hardships, and, as he expected to die soon, he was constantly praying to God. One day a merchant who lived in that place determined to go and trade, and he attempted to push his empty boat from the river-bank into the water, but could not move it; two or three hundred men then tried, but they could not get it in; ten elephants pushed it, but they could not manage it. At last the merchant, not knowing what to do, told the king all about it, and how he had been informed in a dream that if he offered a human sacrifice the boat would move, and he asked the king to give him a man for the purpose. The king, not knowing it was his younger brother, ordered the madman to be given him: so the servants gave Basanta to the merchant, who took him away to sacrifice him. Basanta was much distressed to hear it, and told the merchant that he would drag the boat into the water, and the merchant promised not to kill him if he could do it. So Basanta went to the boat and said, "If I am a true man, move," and he thought on God and put his hand on the boat, and, as soon as he touched it, it went into the water. When the merchant saw it, he thought Basanta could be no common man, so he invited him to go with him to trade, thinking that he would be useful if they came to any place where the current ran very strong. So he loaded the boat with merchandize, and, taking Basanta with him, went to another country to trade.

When he arrived at the place, he fastened his boat to the bank and went to shore. Now the king of that country had a very beautiful daughter whom he wished to marry: so he sent out invitations to kings in many different countries and built a house for the marriage, and there was a great commotion. The merchant went to the king to sell his goods, but the king told him that he had no time to look at them then, but would do so in two days' time after the marriage. So the merchant agreed to remain,

thinking that the princess might perhaps choose him for her husband. On the appointed day kings' sons came together from every side, and the merchant put on his gold and silver ornaments; and Basanta went with him, taking a mat to sit upon, and they each sat down in their appointed place. Then the princess, with a garland of flowers in her hand, came and stood in the midst of the assembly, and each of the kings' sons hoped that she might choose him. Basanta was sitting on a dirty cloth behind the merchant, and as the princess came near, the merchant hoped she might choose him; but she passed him by, and put the garland on Basanta's neck, saying she chose him for her husband. When the kings' sons saw it, they all laughed at the princess's father because she had rejected them and chosen a common slave; and he was so ashamed that he celebrated the marriage at once, and gave his daughter what she had to receive, and sent her off with her husband. The merchant told Basanta to bring the mat he was sitting on, and they all three went away to the boat. Now the merchant had privately determined to kill Basanta and marry the king's daughter, so he ordered his servants to push out into the middle of the river, where the stream was running very strong; and when they had reached a very wide river, where the current was most impetuous, the merchant gave Basanta a *lofá* and told him to draw some water, and as he was stooping over the side of the boat he pushed him into the water. But the princess saw it, and though she was weeping much she threw her husband a pillow, which he caught, and it supported him.

The merchant told Basanta's wife that he intended to keep her to wait on him, but she was much distressed and told him not to touch her for three years, and after that she would live with him. The merchant entreated her much, and attempted to seize her, but she prayed that he might be smitten with leprosy and die if he did so; and he desisted, thinking that at any rate every one would believe that she was his wife, and that her husband was dead and would never return: so he took her to his own house. Meanwhile Basanta, supported on the pillow and struggling with the waves, had swum to shore, and was drying himself in the sun. Near the place where he landed lived an old couple of *dhobis*, and the

wife came down to the *ghát* and saw Basanta lying there. She called to him, but he gave no answer, so she went and told her husband that a man was dying at the *ghát*, and they both went and lifted him up, and took him to their own house, where they lighted a fire and set him near it.

Now they had been for a long time much distressed because they had no son, and they wished to adopt Basanta, so they persuaded him to remain in their house.

In the meantime Basanta's wife, from excess of grief, gave up eating and sleeping, and became much emaciated, and the merchant again asked her to be his wife, but she refused and told him not to touch her for three years or he would be reduced to ashes; he thought no one else could marry her, so when he reached home he made her live in a separate house, and put a guard over her, and kept her with great care. And all this time the washerman and his wife treated Basanta very kindly. Now Turi was king of the country where they lived, and the merchant requested him to order each village in turn to supply men to guard his wife; and when it came to the turn of the *dhobis'* village to supply a man from every two houses the headman ordered the washerman to go. But Basanta, when he heard of it, offered to go in his place, and he and the other watchman went and sat in the house where Basanta's wife was, and talked together, and the other man asked Basanta to tell him a tale. Now Basanta had recognized his wife, but he was doubtful whether she remembered him: so he began to tell all his adventures, and when his wife, who was lying on the bed, heard him tell how he had swum to shore supported by a pillow which his wife had thrown him, she knew he was her husband, and she said she had prayed much to God, and he had promised to restore him to her; and she told him to relate his story next day in the presence of the king. When the morning came she told the merchant that she wished to go before the king, to hear a story which the man who was on guard had to tell, and she promised to marry the merchant as soon as she had heard it. He was delighted with her promise, and went to the king to ask him to give notice that a story would be told; the king did so, and every one assembled to hear the story, sitting in his appointed

place, and Basanta's wife told her husband to begin. So he told the whole story which has been narrated here, and when he had finished, the princess seized his feet and began to weep; and the king recognized his younger brother and embraced him, and banished the merchant

to another country, and severely punished the doorkeepers who had beaten Basanta; and he took him to the palace and appointed him commander-in-chief, and the two brothers continued to live together in great happiness, while the princess proved to be a most devoted wife.

METRICAL TRANSLATION OF BHARTRIHARI'S NĪTI ŚATAKAM.

BY PROF. C. H. TAWNEY, M.A., CALCUTTA.

(Continued from p. 71.)

The praise of Destiny.

Under Vṛihaspati's own eyes
Entrenched on heaven's height,
Wielding th' artillery of the skies,
Followed by gods in fight,
Indra, in spite of all his skill,
Has seen his host give way;
Strength nought avails.—To whom she will
Fortune assigns the day.

Our fates, our minds, depend on deeds
Done in the soul's career,
But each can gain the wit he needs
By careful conduct here.

A bald man felt the sun's fierce rays
Scorch his defenceless head,
In haste to shun the noontide blaze
Beneath a palm he fled:
Prone as he lay, a heavy fruit
Crashed through his drowsy brain:
Whom fate has sworn to persecute
Finds every refuge vain.

When sun and moon eclipsed I see,
And elephants in bonds,
And wise men vexed with poverty;
I own, my soul desponds.

No wonder sages figure Fortune blind;
She first creates a hero to her mind,
Whom all men own the glory of the age,
Then breaks her model in her childish rage.

If thorns and briars bear no leaves we do not
blame the Spring,
Nor yet the Sun, if blinking owls fly not till
evening,

That *chātaks* gape in vain for showers is not
the cloud's disgrace;
Fate's sentence written on the brow no hand
can e'er efface.

The praise of Works.

Why honour gods, who must submit to Fate,
Or Fate, who gives but what our deeds have
won?

Upon our deeds alone depends our state,
By these exalted, as by these undone.

Mighty are works, which Brahmā's self confined
within the egg,*

Which forced e'en Śiva, skull in hand, from
house to house to beg,

Made Vishṇu through ten tedious births his
deity disguise,

Which daily bind th' unwilling sun to wander
through the skies!

Our merits in a former life

Preserve us in the midst of foes,

In woods, flood, fire, in peace and strife,

On Ocean waves, and mountain snows.

Kindness can turn the bad man's heart, and fools
convert to wise,

Make poison into nectar-juice, and friends of
enemies,

Bring distant objects near: then strive that
talisman to gain,

Nor set thy heart on glorious gifts acquired
with endless pain.

Before he act, the man of sense

Looks forward to the consequence,

For heedless acts infix a dart,

That rankles in the tortured heart.

In emerald vessels tallow boil,

And light the fire with spice,

With golden ploughs turn up the soil

And then sow worthless rice,

Thus wiser far than if thou spend

An easy life on earth;

Since all things must on works depend,

Why throw away thy birth?

* The two halves of which subsequently became Heaven and Earth. (Conf. *Aristophanis Aves*, 605.)

What though we climb to Meru's peak, soar
bird-like through the sky,
grow rich by trade, or till the ground, or art
and science ply,
Or vanquish all our earthly foes, we yield to
Fate's decree,
Whate'er she wills can ne'er take place, whate'er
she wills must be.

Whoe'er of merit hath a plenteous store,
Will savage woods a glorious city find,
With gold and gems abounding every
shore,
All regions blissful and all people kind,

*Some verses of an opposite tendency.**

What is the use of living with the wise?
As well be friends with those that truth de-
spise.
Who loses time suffers no loss at all,
Who justly deals shall find his profit small,
Count him no hero who his sense subdues,
A virtuous wife's no blessing one should
choose,
Knowledge is not a jewel men retain,
And sovereign sway's a burden on the brain.

Once in a way the earth is blessed
With one who breaks no bitter jest,
But kindly speaks and all commends,
Faithful to kinsmen, wife, and friends.

Though scorned the man of constant soul
Preserves unchanged his self-control,
In vain men trample on the fire,
For upward still its flames aspire.

That hero whose obdurate breast is steeled
'Gainst sidelong shafts of love and anger's fire,
Nor devious drawn with cords of vain desire,
Might stand against three worlds in open field.

Whoe'er with gentle nature charms
The world, all hurtful things disarms,
Finds flames as mountain streamlets cool,
And Ocean calm as summer pool,
The lion as the roe-deer meek,
Mount Meru but a tiny peak,
A cobra but a wreath of flowers,
And poison-draughts like nectar-showers.

Great-hearted men would sooner part with life
Than honour, as their mother ever dear,
To which in evil days they still adhere,
Nor wage with self-respect unholy strife.

THE DVAIĀSHARAYA.

(Continued from p. 236.)

The Thirteenth Sarga.

After this Bār bār† presented gold, jewels,
&c.—many presents, to the Rāja to secure his
favour. He began to serve Jayasiṅha, as all
the Kshatriyas served him, and molested no one
in the country; and without waiting Jayasiṅha's
commands he devoted himself to the protection
of the sacrifices, so that Jayasiṅha was greatly
pleased with him.

One night the Rāja went out privately to see
the state of the city. He heard the wise prais-
ing the Rāja, and the Thags abusing him. He
went on to the house of a fisherman, and
wandering thence he reached the banks of the
Sarasvatī. He found himself next in a great
jungle, where, at night, the owls were killing
the crows. In this jungle Jayasiṅha saw a
pair—a man and woman. The Rāja asked the
man, "Who are you? Who is the woman
with you? And why are you wandering about

in this terrible jungle at this season?" He
answered, "There is a city in Pātāl named
Bhogavatīpuri, where dwells the Nāga
Rāja Ratnachūḍa, whose son Kanaka-
chūḍa I am. I came hither because of a
quarrel with a Nāga Kūvara, named Daman,
with whom I was studying."

Then Jayasiṅha gave assistance to this Ka-
nakachūḍa. The Nāga then granted a boon
to the Rāja—"You shall conquer the whole
world." He then returned with his wife to
Pātāl, and the king went back to the city.

The Fourteenth Sarga.

King Jayasiṅha went out in the morning to
make salutation to the Deva and the Guru. He
exercised his horse and went out on an elephant
to take the air, but being wakeful he did not
sleep, so no one knew that he wandered about
at night. The Rāja by this practice of wander-
ing about at night subdued to himself the

* This is only applicable to the first stanza.

† Styled Varman, the lord of Ujjain, in a copper-plate

dated Sahavāt 1366, belonging to the Royal Asiatic Society
—see *Rās Māhā*, vol. I. p. 66.

Bhutas, Śakinis, and others, learned many *mantras*, and from what he saw at night he would call people in the daytime and say, "You have such an uneasiness," or "You have such a comfort," so that people thought that he knew the hearts of men, and must be an *avatār* of a Deva.

One day a Yogini came from Ujjain to the king at Pāṭṭan, and began to hold a discussion with the Rāja, saying, "O Rāja, if you desire great fame, come to Ujjain and humbly entreat Kālikā and the other Yoginīs, and make friends with Yaśovarman, the Rāja of Ujjain,* for without him you cannot go to Ujjain."

Jayasīṅha said to the Yoginī, "I will seize that Yaśovarman and make him a prisoner: therefore, if you like, go and give him all the assistance you can. If this Yaśovarman fly to save his life it is better, otherwise I will enslave him like a parrot. If you do not assist him, all the service you have paid him will have been waste of labour. If I do not conquer Yaśovarman, I will be your servant. If you do not fly hence like a female crow, I will cut off your nose and ears with this sword." Thus saying he turned out the Yoginī.

Then Jayasīṅha quickly prepared to go to Ujjain,† and collected his army from village to village. He advanced towards Ujjain by daily stages of eight *kos*, and conquering the rājas that he passed on the road he took them with him. On the way he broke down the tops of many mountains to level the road. A Bhīlī Rāja attended Jayasīṅha at this time. Jayasīṅha was pleased when he saw this Bhīlī Rāja and his army, like the monkeys in the army of Rāmachandraji. The Bhīlīs were dwellers in the mountains; therefore when a mountain came in the way, though the place were a terrible one, they would quickly mount it. They climbed trees, too, to get at the fruit to eat. Wherever there was a terrible cave they would enter into it. They pursued wild animals to catch them. If as they went, on account of the throng, they could not get a road, they would go on without one. Jayasīṅha's army on arriving at Ujjain encamped on the Śīprā river. His servants made known to Jayasīṅha that the tents were pitched, with the horses fast-

ened on one side, and the details of the encampment. Then the courtizans, putting on clothes of varied kinds, came and danced before Jayasīṅha. Jayasīṅha sent certain Bhutas, Pretas, &c. against Ujjain, to cause annoyance. Many warriors with slings began to cast stones against Ujjain. Some went and broke down the moat of Ujjain, and some that saw it said nothing. When Jayasīṅha knew of this he did not forbid it, though it was done without his orders, because it pleased him, and he had thought of ordering it.

Yaśovarman prepared to fight to protect Ujjain, and came with his Pradhān; but the sun had gone down, and Jayasīṅha was employed in the evening service. When it was dark, Jayasīṅha went out alone to see the environs of Ujjain. He went to the Śīprā river, where there are Devasthāns and places of pilgrimage called after the Rishis. He saw there a company of women, and knew them to be Yoginīs. Jayasīṅha knew that they intended to prepare *mantras* to cause his death. The Yoginīs attacked the king, who fought with them, though he was not pleased to contend with women. At last they pronounced that they were pleased with him, and that he should conquer Yaśovarman. The king returned to his army, and the next day seated in a *pālki* he entered Ujjain, and seizing Yaśovarman, imprisoned him, and brought all Avāntideśa with Dhār under subjection to himself. Afterwards Jayasīṅha seized and imprisoned a rāja of the country near to Ujjain named Sim, and several other rājas. Some of them he caged like birds, some he chained by the neck like cattle, or by the legs like horses.

The Fifteenth Sarga.

Then Jayasīṅha with his Bhayad returned from Mālwa. On the road several rājas brought their daughters to be married to Jayasīṅha, and treated him with great respect. The rājas and others who plundered pilgrims he slew or drove out from that place, and made the place without fear. Afterwards Jayasīṅha lived for a time at Siddhapur, and built the Rudra Māla on the banks of the Sarasvatī, where the river flows eastwards.‡ Jayasīṅha also caused to be built at Siddhapur a temple

* The chronology of the Ujjain princes, as given in the Piplanagar plates, is as follows:—1. Rāja Bhoja Deva; 2. Udayāditya; 3. Naravarman, died Śaivrat 1199; 4. Yaśovarman, Śaiv. 1194; Ajayavarman, Śaivrat 1200-1235, &c.

Conf. Jour. As. Soc. Beng. vol. V. p. 380; vol. VII. p. 735. Trans. R. As. Soc. vol. I. p. 233; Jour. B. Br. R. As. Soc. vol. I. p. 263.

† *Rās Māla*, vol. I. p. 111. ‡ *Ib.* p. 116.

of Mahāvira Svāmi, and he served the Śaṅkha there. Jayasīṃha went after this to ask the Rājas of Panchāḍeśa (himself travelling on foot) to do pilgrimage at Somanātha. Many Brāhmanas were with him. The king arrived at Deva Paṭṭan in a few days and beheld Somanātha. He gave *lakṣmī* to Brāhmanas. The Rāja of Deva Paṭṭan, when he heard of Jayasīṃha's coming, went to meet him with his son, his brother, and family. He brought Jayasīṃha to his court, and worshipped him with *maṇḍapushp*, &c. Jayasīṃha worshipped Somanātha with jewels of many kinds. He gave *dāna* to Brāhmanas and other Yāchaks, and dismissed them; then he sent his own servant away and sat alone to meditate. Mahādeva then appeared to him visibly and promised him victory over all rājas. The king entreated that he might have a son. Mahādeva then told him that his brother Tribhuvanapāla's son Kumārapāla should sit on his throne. The god then became invisible.

After this Jayasīṃha with great splendour ascended Gīrnār,* and went to the temple of Neminātha and worshipped there.

He went thence to Siṅghapur,† the Brāhmanas' village, and finally returned to Paṭṭan. The king caused to be made the Sahasraliṅga tank,‡ and also many *uḍas*, wells, tanks, *Devamandira*, gardens, &c., and at the tanks he established *sādūratas*. He established also schools for learning the *Jotish-śāstras*, *Nyaya-śāstras*, and *Purāṇas*, and he caused a hundred and eight temples of Chandikā Deva and others to be built at that tank.

At last Siddharāja, recollecting what Mahādeva had told him about Kumārapāla's succeeding him, took the vow of "*aśhan*." The next day, reflecting on the god, he went to Swarga (A.D. 1143).

The Sixteenth Sarga.

Afterwards Kumārapāla mounted the throne of his uncle. Brāhmanas performed *abhishēka*. On Jayasīṃha's death the Rāja of the Sapāḍ Lakṣha Deśa,§ whose name was Āna, supposing the government to be new and Kumārapāla to be weak, quarrelled with him. The people also that lived on the banks of the Śaivahārā quarrelled with him. Āna

was called Rāja of the North, and Kumārapāla of the West. Āna began to make friends of Vallāl the king of Avanti, and of the Rājas on the banks of the Pārā river, and of the Rāja of the country on the west of Gujarāt. He held out threats, too, that when he had conquered Kumārapāla he would conquer them unless they joined him. The Gujarāt sovereign, knowing the Sapāḍ Lakṣha Rāja was advancing, prepared for him. In Āna's army there were several rājas and chiefs skilled in foreign languages. Āna Rāja first made an attack upon the west of Gujarāt. Kumārapāla's spies made this known to him, informing him also that the Rāja of Kanthā-gām had joined Āna, and that a leader of his own army, Chāḥad,¶ intended to do so. They said, too, that Āna was well informed of the state of Gujarāt by traders who were in the habit of coming to this country, and that Vallāl, the Rāja of Ujjain, was to attack Gujarāt on his side when Āna made his attack. Kumārapāla was much enraged when he heard this.

At that time the Paṭṭan people called Āna "Rāja of Kāśī": they said that he had been as it were the servant of Jayasīṃha, and was only now beginning to be known. Vallāl had joined him, and the Rāja of Pātaliputra, who was "like a jackal." Āna's army was led by a Brāhman named Rāka.

Kumārapāla was joined by several rājas and by Kolis (*Kolaka*)—very celebrated horse-men—who assembled from all sides. Many wild tribes also joined his army. The people of Kachh, his tributaries, joined him (whose horses were splendid), with the Sindhis also. Kumārapāla advanced towards Abu, and was there joined by the mountain people dressed in the skins of deer. The Rāja of Abu at this time was Vikrama Siṅgh. The men of Jalandhardeśa (Jālor) followed him: he looked on Kumārapāla as his lord. He came to meet Kumārapāla and said:—"Vishvamitra Rishi produced our Parmāra race to rule in this place, nevertheless you have a tribute (*kar*) upon us: still we are prosperous. These Kumāris (*Devī*) that dwell on Abu are not subject to you, yet as your predecessors, kings of the Solāṅki race, have protected

* *Rās Māhā*, vol. I. p. 171.

† Or Sīhor, *ib.* p. 174.

‡ *Ib.* pp. 111, 117.

§ Nagor, Miratunga styles him Ānaka, the grandson of Vimala Deva Chauhan.—*Rās Māhā*, vol. I. pp. 184-186.

¶ Kanthkot?

¶ Mentioned in a copper-plate in the Jain Library at Nadol dated Sam. 1214; Miratunga says it was Wāḥad that joined Āna.—*Rās Māhā*, vol. I. pp. 187, 427.

them, they remembering this benefit sing your praises. Here is *Vaśiṣṭha Rishi's* hermitage, and the country is called one of eighteen hundred villages. In the midst of this *Abu* is the pure river *Mandâkinī*; here too is *Achaleśvara Mahâdeva*: here the means of attaining *moksha* have great success. Here is a great place of *Rishabh Deva*, which is much worshipped by pilgrims. On this *Abu* it is always cool, so the people dress themselves in lions' skins. Here there are mines of various kinds, so that people are wealthy; famines do not occur, disease is hardly known. On this *Abu* many *Bhills* live who are skilful as guides, also cultivators, *śâlâs*, painters, gamblers too, many of them: there are mines of stones, mines of jewels. Here is a forest called *Saḍval*, such as is not to be met with even in *Swarga*. *Sindhukâ* and other *Devis* dwell therein. *Apsarasas* also come here to sport. People come hither from foreign countries every year to celebrate *Śrî Mâtâ's* festival. Here grow good crops of barley and rice, and my income is lakhs of rupees, out of which I too every year keep *Śrî Devî's* festivals. On the mountain is the excellent river *Varṇasâ*: you should encamp on the banks of it. Scholars come hither from foreign lands to learn Sanskrit."

After this speech the *Râja* entertained *Kumârapâla* as a guest with flowers, sandal, &c.

The Seventeenth Sarga.

Description of night, &c.

The Eighteenth Sarga.

Afterwards *Kumârapâla* set out from thence: a white umbrella held over him denoted his royal rank. When *Āna Râja* heard of *Kumârapâla's* arrival he prepared to fight. His minister, however, counselled him against engaging, saying that he should not have left *Mârwar* to attack *Gujarât*; but *Āna Râja* did not approve of his advice, supposing he had been bribed by *Kumârapâla*. Meanwhile the noise of *Kumârapâla's* force was heard as it emerged from under the shelter of the mountains.

The soldiers of *Āna Râja* shot arrows at *Kumârapâla's* army. The king of *Nagor* took his bow and arrows. There were in the army leaders of twenties and thirties called *Mahâbhats*, and of thousands called *Bhata Râjas*. The battle raged. The army of *Āna*, though led by *Chatrâpatis*, was driven back by the

Gujarât army. *Āna* then rushed on *Kumârapâla*, who said to him, "If you are a brave warrior, how is it that you bent the head before *Jayasiṃha*? It proved assuredly that you were knowing. If I conquer you not, it will be to tarnish the fame of *Jayasiṃha*." The two sovereigns fought; the armies, too, closed, the *Gujarâtis* led by *Āhad* the minister, and their enemy by the *Mantri Govindarâja*. At last an iron shaft struck *Āna* and he fell to the earth. Then his chiefs submitted to *Kumârapâla*.

The Nineteenth Sarga.

Kumârapâla, having struck *Āna*, remained some days on the field of battle. He was now advised that he should win fame by subduing *Vallâl*, as *Jayasiṃha* had by conquering *Yasovarman*. *Āna* offered a daughter in marriage to *Kumârapâla* with horses and elephants. The king complained that *Āna* had committed an offence not to be pardoned, in having slain wounded men. However, he accepted his proposals and returned to *Paṭṭan*.

Afterwards the *Gor* of *Āna Râja* was sent to *Anahillapur* with *Jalhanâ*, who was duly married to *Kumârapâla*.

News was brought to *Kumârapâla* that *Vijaya* and *Krishna*, the two *Sāmants* whom he had sent to oppose *Vallâl* when he himself advanced against *Āna*, had gone over to the king of *Ujjain*, and that that monarch was already in his territory advancing on *Anahillapur*. *Kumârapâla*, assembling his troops, went against *Vallâl*, who was defeated and struck from his elephant.

The Twentieth Sarga.

Then *Kumârapâla* forbade the sacrifices of life, and thus with his brother *Mahipâla Deva*, and that brother's son *Jayadeva*, lived happily. The *Brâhmanas*, too, that sacrificed life in their *Yagnas* were forbidden to do so, and began to offer sacrifices of grain. This order was obeyed also in *Pallidēśa*, so that the *Sanyâsis*, who used deer-skins for a covering, found it difficult to procure any. The people of *Panchâladeśa*, too, who had been great destroyers of life, being subjects of *Kumârapâla*, were restrained from destroying it. The trade of those who sold flesh was put a stop to, and three years' income allowed to them in compensation. The people of the countries about *Kâśi*, however, continued to take life.*

Kumārāpāla also ordered his ministers that they should bring none of the property of those who died without heirs into his treasury. People when they heard this proclaimed that a rāja had ever done so great a deed as this.

Afterwards it was reported one day to Kumārāpāla that the temple of Kedāresvara Mahādeva* was old and falling down. Kumārāpāla said that it was a disgrace to the śhas Rāja of Kedār that he plundered the pilgrims and yet did not even repair the temple. He ordered his own minister to have the temple repaired. So also he caused the temple of Somanātha to be repaired.†

He erected also temples of Pārśvanātha and Ānahlīlapura, and placed in them *sphāṭika* images. He also caused a temple of Pārśvanātha to be built at Deva Pattan. He called the temple he had built at Ānahlīlapura the Kumāra Vihāra. Both that and the temple of Deva Pattan were so splendid that many people came to see them.

Afterwards one night in a dream Mahādeva said to the Rāja that he was pleased with his service and wish to reside at Ānahlīlapura. Thereupon the Rāja built there the temple of Kumārāpālesvara to Mahādeva.‡

All people praised Kumārāpāla and hoped that he would live for ever, and caused his era to be established.

Thus of Jineśvara Suri's disciple Leśājaya Tilak Gaṇi's *Dvaidhārāya* (so named) composed by Śrī Siddha Hemachandra§, the twentieth sarga has been completed.

1. In the Śrī Chandravaiśa arose Jineśvara Suri, pupil of Śrī Varddhamaṇa Āchārya, who travelled about Gujarāt in the reign of Darabha Rāja.

2. Jinachandra Suri.

3. Abhaya Deva Suri, who lived at Khambhāta and composed many works.

4. Jina Vallabha Suri.

5. Jina Datta Suri.

6. Jinachandra Suri.

7. Jinapati Suri.

8. Jineśvara Suri, at the order of whom

9. His disciple Leśābhai Tilak Gaṇi composed this book. Lakshmi Tilak Kavi composed a *tika* on the work and amended it. This book was completed in the year Vikrama 1312 (A.D. 1256), on the day of the Divālī, at Śrī Pralhadan Pattan. May it be for many years celebrated in the three Lokas!

RELIGIOUS AND MORAL SENTIMENTS FREELY RENDERED FROM SANSKRIT WRITERS.

BY JOHN MUIR, D.C.L., LL.D., FR.D., EDINBURGH.

(Continued from page 262.)

29. Atharva Veda, x. 8. 44|| :—*Consequence of the knowledge of the self-existent Soul.*
The happy man who once has learned to know
The self-existent Soul, from passion pure,
Serene, undying, ever young, secure
From all the change that other natures show,
Whose full perfection no defect abates,
Whom¶ pure essential good for ever sates,—
That man alone, no longer dreading death,
With tranquil joy resigns his vital breath.

30. Raghuvaiśa, x. 15-32:—*Hymn addressed to Vishṇu by the Deities.*
To Thee, creator first, to Thee,
Preserver next, destroyer last,
Be glory; though but one, Thou hast
Thyself in act revealed as three.

As water pure from heaven descends,
But soon with other objects blends,
And various hues and flavours gains;
So moved by Goodness, Passion, Gloom,*
Dost Thou three several states assume,
While yet Thine essence pure remains.

Though one, Thou different forms hast sought;
Thy changes are compared to those
Which lucid crystal undergoes,
With colours into contact brought.

Unmeasured, Thou the worlds dost mete,
Thyself though no ambition fires,
'Tis Thou who grantest all desires.
Unvanquished, Victor, Thee we greet.

* *Ris Māhā*, vol. I. pp. 195, 347.

† *Ib.* p. 191.

‡ *Ib.* p. 193.

§ *Vide ante*, p. 71, and *Ris Māhā*, vol. I. p. 115.

¶ See *Orig. Sansk. Texts*, vol. IV. p. 29.

¶ As the soul (*ātman*) is masculine in Sanskrit, I have ventured to put the relative pronoun following the word in that gender.

* See Wilson's *Vishṇu Purāṇa*, vol. I. p. 41 (Dr. Halp's ed.), where *Rajas* is translated 'activity,' and not 'passion.'

A veil, which sense may never rend,
Thyself,—of all which sense reveals
The subtle germ and cause—conceals :
Thee saints alone may comprehend.

Thou dwellest every heart within,
Yet fillest all the points of space ;
Without affection, full of grace,
Primal, changeless, pure from sin ;

Though knowing all, Thyself unknown,
Self-sprung, and yet of all the source,
Unmastered, lord of boundless force,
Though one, in each thing diverse shown.

With minds by long restraint subdued,
Saints, fixing all their thoughts on Thee,
Thy lustrous form within them see,
And ransomed, gain the highest good.

Who, Lord, Thy real nature knows ?
Unborn art Thou, and yet on earth
Hast shown Thyself in many a birth,
And, free from passion, slain Thy foes.

Thy glory in creation shown,
Though seen, our reason's grasp transcends :
Who, then, Thine essence comprehends,
Which thought and scripture teach alone ?

Ungained, by Thee was nought to gain,
No object more to seek : Thy birth,
And all Thy wondrous deeds on earth,
Have only sprung from love to men.*

* Compare the *Bhagavad Gītā*, iii. 22 : "There is nothing which I am bound to do, nor anything unobtainable which I have yet to obtain ; and yet I continue to act. 25. As the ignorant, who are devoted to action, do, so let the wise man also do, seeking to promote the benefit of the world."

† The literal prose-translation of this passage is as follows—15. "Glory to Thee, who art first the creator of the universe, next its upholder, and finally its destroyer ; glory to Thee in this threefold character. 16. As water falling from the sky, though having but one flavour, assumes different flavours in different bodies, so Thou, associated with the three qualities [*Sattva*, *Rajas*, and *Tamas*, or Goodness, Passion, and Darkness], assumest [three] states [those of creator, preserver, and destroyer, according to the commentator], though Thyself unchanged. 17. Innumerable, Thou measurest the worlds ; desiring nothing, Thou art the fulfiller of desires ; unconquered, Thou art a conqueror ; utterly indecipherable, Thou art the cause of all that is discerned. 18. Though one, Thou from one or another cause assumest this or that condition ; Thy variations are compared to those which crystal undergoes from the contact of different colours. 19. Thou art known as abiding in [our] hearts, and yet as remote ; as free from affection, ascetic, merciful, untouched by sin, primal, and imperishable. 20. Thou knowest all things, Thyself unknown ; sprung from Thyself (or self-existent), Thou art the source of all things ; Thou art the lord of all, Thyself without a master ; though but one, Thou assumest all forms. 21. Thou art declared to be He who is celebrated in the seven *Sāma*-hymns, to be He who sleeps on the waters of the seven oceans, whose face is lighted up by the god of seven rays (Fire), and who is the one resort of the seven worlds. 22. Knowledge which gains the four classes of fruit [virtue, pleasure, wealth, and

With this poor hymn though ill-content,
We cease :—what stays our faltering tongue ?
We have not half Thy praises sung,
But all our power to sing is spent.†

31. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 2. 2. 19 :—*Results of Truth and Falsehood.*

Those noble men who falsehood dread,
In wealth and glory ever grow,
As flames with greater brightness glow,
With oil in ceaseless flow when fed.

But like to flames with water drenched,
Which, faintly flickering, die away,
So liars day by day decay,
Till all their lustre soon is quenched.

32. Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, x. 9 :—*Sweet savour of Good Deeds : Falsehood to be shunned.*

As far and wide the vernal breeze
Sweet odours wafts from blooming trees,
So, too, the grateful savour speeds
To distant lands of virtuous deeds.

As one expert in daring feats
Athwart a pit a sword who lays,
And walking on its edge essays
The chasm to cross, but soon retreats,
With cries, afraid to fall below,
And trembling stands upon the brink,—
So let a man from falsehood shrink,
And guard himself from future woe.

final liberation], the division of time into four yugas [ages], the fourfold division of the people into castes,—all these things come from Thee, the four-faced. 23. Yogins (devoutly contemplative men), with minds subdued by exercise, recognize Thee, the luminous, abiding in their hearts, (and so attain) to liberation from earthly existence. 24. Who comprehends the truth regarding Thee, who art unborn, and yet becomest born ; who art passionless, yet slayest thine enemies ; who sleepest, and yet art awake ? 25. Thou art capable of enjoying sounds and other objects of sense, of practising severe austerity, of protecting thy creatures, and of living in indifference to all external things. 26. The roads leading to perfection, which vary according to the different revealed systems, all end in Thee, as the waves of the Ganges flow to the ocean. 27. For those passionless men whose hearts are fixed on Thee, who have committed to Thee their works, Thou art a refuge, so that they escape further mundane births. 28. Thy glory, as manifested to the senses in the earth and other objects, is yet incomprehensible : what shall be said of Thyself, who canst be proved only by the authority of scripture and by inference ? 29. Seeing that the remembrance of Thee alone purifies a man, the rewards of other mental acts also, when directed towards Thee, are thereby indicated. 30. As the waters exceed the ocean, and as the beams of light exceed the sun, so Thy acts transcend our praises. 31. There is nothing for Thee to attain which Thou hast not already attained : kindness to the world is the only motive for Thy birth and for Thy actions. 32. If this our hymn now comes to a close after celebrating Thy greatness, the reason of this is our exhaustion, or our inability to say more,—not that there is any limit (*tyatā*, so-much-ness, *paratitas*) to thy attributes." These verses have not all been rendered literally.

33. *Mānu*, viii. 17, and iv. 230-242:—*The only inseparable friend.*

Their virtue is the only friend

That never men deserts in death:

As flits away their vital breath

All other ties and friendships end.

Nor father, mother, wife, nor son

Beside us then can longer stay,

Nor kinsfolk; virtue is the one

Companion of our darksome way.

Alone each creature sees the light,

Alone this world at length he leaves,

Alone the recompense receives,

Of all his actions, wrong or right.

His log-like, clad-like body placed

Within the sad funeral ground,

His kinsmen one by one turn round,

Forsake the spot, and homeward haste.

His virtue never quits his side,

A faithful guardian, comrade, guide.

Be then a store of virtue gained,

To help when comes our day of doom:

We cross the dread and trackless gloom,

By virtue's friendly arm sustained.*

34. *Mahābhārata*, xii. 12121:—*Death is not the extinction of the good.*

Let no one deem the wise are dead

Who've "shuffled off this mortal coil,"

The wise whose lives were pure from soil,

Whose souls with holy lore were fed.

35. *Mahābhārata*, xii. 10576, 10581:—*Self-exaltation and censure of others condemned.*

Himself in men's esteem to raise

On others' faults let no one dwell;

But rather let a man excel

All other men in doing well,

And thus command the meed of praise.

Oft worthless men, in blind conceit,

Their own superior merits vaunt,

And better men with failings taunt:

Reproof themselves with scorn they meet.

By blameless acts alone the wise,—

Although they ne'er themselves exalt,

Nor yet with other men find fault,—

To high esteem and honour rise.

* See *Orig. Sansk. Texts*, vol. I. p. 380. The same idea is repeated in the *Mahābhārata*, xii. vv. 5405 ff., and is briefly alluded to in the *Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa*, I. 7. 28. Conf. *Sophocles, Philoctetes*, 1143-4; and *Euripides (Dindorf's ed.), Temestides*, frag. 1.

† Compare *Proverbs*, xx. 6; *Euripides (Dindorf's ed.)*, *frag.* 20; *Xenophon's Memorabilia*, I. vii. 1; and *Æschylus's*

The odour sweet of virtuous deeds,

Though voiceless, far and wide will fly:†

To tell his presence in the sky

The noonday sun no herald needs.

By self-applause a fool in vain

From others seeks renown to gain.

A wise man's merits, long concealed,

At last are surely all revealed.

36. *Mahābhārata*, iii. 2326; *Brahma-dharma*, ii. 2, 1:—*The best cure for misfortune.*

Thou sayest right;—for all the ills of life

No cure exists, my fair one, like a wife.

37. *Mahābhārata*, xii. 12050-52:—*Men should seek permanent blessedness‡.*

The body—is it not like foam

The tossing wave an instant cresting;

In it thy spirit, bird-like, resting,

Soon flies to seek another home.

In this thy frail abode, so dear,

How canst thou slumber free from fear?

Why dost thou not wake up, when all

Thy watchful enemies ever seek

To strike thee there where thou art weak,

To bring about thy long'd-for fall?

Thy days are numbered,—all apace

Thy years roll on,—thy powers decay;

Why dost thou vainly then delay,

And not arise and haste away

To some unchanging dwelling-place?

38. *Mahābhārata*, i. 3095 §:—*Truth better than sacrifice.*

By weighing, truth and sacrifice appraise:

A thousand sacrifices truth outweighs.

39. *Mahābhārata*, xiii. 1544:—*The same.*

In one scale truth, in the other lay

A thousand *Asvamedhas*; try;

I doubt if all that pile so high

Ev'n half as much as truth would weigh.

40. *Panchatantra*, i. 21:—*Men should visit foreign countries.*

The incurious men at home who dwell,

And foreign realms with all their store

Of various wonders ne'er explore,—

Are simply frogs within a well.

his's Thebes, vv. 591 f.; and with v. 10581 comp. *Psalms* xix. 3 f.

† Conf. *James*, iv. 14; 1 *Peter*, v. 8; and the quotation in *Cicero pro Plancio*, 24, 59:—'Vigilandum est semper; multæ insidie sunt bonis.'

‡ Repeated in xii. 6002, and xiii. 36516:—"Let a thousand *Asvamedhas* and truth be weighed in the balance:—truth exceeds the thousand *Asvamedhas*."

ARCHÆOLOGICAL NOTES.

BY M. J. WALHOUSE, LATE M.C.S.

(Continued from page 163).

VI.—*Buddhist Vestiges in Trichinapalli,
Madras.*

Kulitale is the *kasbā*, or chief town, of a *tālūka* of the same name in the district of Trichinapalli. It lies on the south bank of the Kāveri river, 20 miles from the famous old town of Clive and Lawrence, and is now, I believe, a station of the South Indian Railway that skirts the Kāveri, joining the Great Indian Peninsula line with Tanjore and Negapatam. About two miles south of the station, on a wide open plain, a remarkable rocky ridge crops up, such as is frequently seen on the extensive rolling *maidāns* of the South. It may be 200 or 300 yards long, of no great height, and strewn with enormous boulders, one of which, situated at the western end of the ridge, is the most remarkable and striking example of the kind I have ever seen, being a colossal rounded mass nearly thirty feet high, poised on its smaller end, so as to resemble a pear or top upright when viewed from the east, but presenting a different aspect and shape on each quarter, as exemplified in the plate. Its enormous mass and the very small stand it rests on make it an astonishing object viewed from any side.* The eastern end of the ridge terminates in a precipitous pile crowned with another vast boulder, square and broad, also very striking, but of less interest than the other. Between the two the ridge is covered with an agglomeration of immense masses, some of colossal size, under one of which runs a long deep cave. The accompanying plate gives a general view of the ridge and boulders, but the point of antiquarian interest consists in the square entablature cut on the eastern face of the first-mentioned boulder. It is well cut, in perfect preservation, and represents Buddha seated, with attendants on each side; an enlarged sketch is given on the plate. This lonely memorial of a vanished faith is entirely ignored and unnoticed by the present population. No legend even attaches to it; the herdsmen grazing their cattle on the plain

have no name for it—that I could discover at least; and it remains a mute witness of Buddhist or Jaina ascendancy. Though calling it a representation of Buddha,† it may also be one of the Jaina Manus or Tirthaṅkaras, which does not seem improbable, considering how long the Jaina faith prevailed in the neighbouring Pāṇḍyan kingdom of Madurai. The only other relic I could hear of in the Trichinapalli district is a large Buddhist or Jaina image, exceeding life-size, that lies prostrate under a hedge near the Vellār river, not far from the point where it is crossed by the high road from Trichinapalli to South Arcat; the Vellār is the boundary between the two districts, and the image is covered with the blown sand from the river-bed, having only the head and shoulders exposed. At V ol k o n d ā p u r a m, ten miles south of the Vellār, often mentioned by Orme, once a *tālūka kasbā*, now a wretched little place, there is a small nasty-looking square tank in a temple-court that has a Jaina or Buddhist appearance, being surrounded with a curious low sunken cloister, the roof level with the ground. Memorials of many creeds and epochs are strangely mingled on this old historic battle-ground. At V ol k o n d ā p u r a m there is a small fort, now almost obliterated; an abandoned travellers' bungalow stands, or stood, upon it; and within the circuit of the wall are two temples, one containing the cloistered tank, the other a Siva temple, with a beautiful *chattram* close by, exhibiting very admirable carving, with six monolithic pillars in front, two representing a warrior on a rearing horse trampling on a fallen enemy, the other a griffin rampant standing on a kneeling elephant, the latter with head thrown up and trunk turning round a sort of *dyræus* which the griffin clasps at the middle with its fore claws, holding the end in its jaws. There is much other good sculpture, groups of figures in entablature, &c., many with faces disfigured or heads knocked off by Haidar's men; one Gāddi Mudeliar is traditionally said

* The rock is granitoid. In *Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India* by Dr. Oldham, vol. iv. pt. 2, pp. 80, 81, there will be found delineations of other grotesque and striking rocky piles and tors in the Trichinapalli District.

† It appears to represent Buddha in what Col. Yale designates the Western attitude, as a mendicant, both hands resting in the lap with the palms upwards, the begging pot, as is often the case, omitted.



ENLARGED DRAWING OF THE SCULPTURE.



WEST FACE

EAST FACE



BOULDER BEARING A BUDDHIST ENTABLATURE,
NEAR TRICHINOPOLY, MADRAS.

to have been the builder. Just opposite the fort there is a masjid, and near it a handsome black marble tomb, none know whose; the masjid looks very like a Hindu temple, and appears to have been adapted from one, containing Hindu pillars with faces smoothed, and graven with Arabic inscriptions, and along the wall at the end there is a row of Norman-looking blind arches and a reading pulpit, with pillars once manifestly Hindu. Not far from this in the plain there is a beautiful Hindu *maṣṭapam* consisting of a domed canopy supported by slender elegant fluted pillars: this too the Musalmāns have appropriated, and placed in it a Pīr's tomb of very solid granite, supported at the four corners by legs, and with the top worked couch-fashion. Twice or thrice by the long dreary road a mouldering brick tomb marks the resting-place of one of the stout fellows who marched with Calliand.

The high pyramidal hill seen in the plate rising beyond the boulder-ridge, from which it is about a mile distant, is named *Śivaya Male*, i.e. Śiva's Hill, and is crowned with a Śiva temple enclosed by a remarkably high blank wall to which a fine broad steep flight of 1099 steps leads up from the bottom. I ascended these one hot morning, and found the pull-up very exhausting. On reaching the top, the people with me did not like the temple even to be approached, so I made no attempt to enter, but would not be stayed from sitting down in the shadow of the high wall, which was pierced by a lofty entrance that appeared to make a sharp turn at a short distance within, like the entrance to a fort. All these southern provinces are dotted over with isolated hills and rocks of varying sizes, almost invariably surmounted by temples approached by long flights of steps. The temple on Mount Gerizim was so approached, and very similar indeed must have been the 'high places' so often mentioned in the historical books of the Old Testament, always with anger and reprobation, as connected with the idolatries and abominations into which Israel was continually lapsing.* It was on these 'high places' that the 'images' and 'groves,' 'the accursed thing' that defiled Israel (*Joshua vii.*), and the 'image provoking to jealousy' which Ezekiel saw at the very

gate of the altar, were set up: these were the deadliest offences, which the Law and the Prophets were never weary of denouncing; and were the objects and expressions referred to properly understood and translated, it is certain that could an Indian follower of Śiva have seen them, he would at once have recognized objects familiar in his own temples, but, there is reason to believe, far more grossly represented, and worshipped with rites now only heard of in sects like the *Mahārājas*, or at orgies held on particular occasions in certain temples of Southern India.

Before quitting this locality, I venture to refer to a passage in Dr. Burnell's lately published admirable work, the *Elements of South-Indian Palæography*. At page 73, referring to the paucity of historical inscriptions, he observes: "The great irrigation works of the Chōḷa Kāvūri delta were chiefly constructed by Chōḷa princes in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, but I have never been able to hear of any inscriptions referring to them; and Major Mead, R.E., who has visited every part of them, tells me he has never seen anything of the kind."

At Museri, however, immediately opposite Kulitsle, on the north bank of the river, there is an extraordinarily massive granite bridge, built in the days of the rājas, over the fine irrigation channel that skirts the river, and on one side of it an inscription is cut, which, in conjunction with the local paṇḍits, I rendered thus, though not expert enough to vouch for its absolute correctness:—"The channel-head was cut by Lozhakkōnān during his reign, as a monument to the memory of Karikal Chozhān—the flowing treasure of Manmudichozhān-peṭṭai—the key of the prosperous country belonging to the three kings of the South." Some archæologist near the spot may perhaps correct and explain this, or send a copy to Dr. Burnell; mine has been lost. Though in an *agrahāram*, there is a temple close to the bridge to an indigenous god of the soil, whom the Brāhmaṇs disown and would fain dislodge,—which looks as if the place dated from pre-Brāhmaṇical times. The people assigned an antiquity of 1300 years to the bridge and inscription! The Pāṇḍya Chōḷa and Chera kingdoms are probably referred to in the latter.

* 2 Chron. xxxiii. 3; 1 Kings, xiv. 23. See, too, the curious account of the calling of Saul, 1 Sam. x. 5.

Note.

As archaeological interest and archaeological eyes are more frequent now, and indications of localities may be of use, it may not be out of place to append an extract from Pharaoh's *Gazetteer of Southern India*, Madras, 1855, pp. 338-9, respecting a spot in Udiarpālayam, the most easterly tālukā of Trichinapalli, which I was never able to visit myself. The tank referred to must be remarkable as rivalling in extent the great lake-like reservoirs once existing in Ceylon; and, with reference to the comment at the end, it is satisfactory to reflect that such high-handed Vandalism would probably not be countenanced by officials or Government to-day. "It may also be mentioned that in the Udiarpālayam tālukā there is an embankment 16 miles long, running north and south, provided with several substantial sluices and of great strength, which in former times must have formed one of the largest reservoirs in India. This large tank or lake was filled partly by a channel from the Kolerun river, upwards of 60 miles in length, which enters it at its southern end, and partly by a smaller channel from the Vellār, which entered it on the north. Traces of both these channels still remain. The tank has been ruined and useless for very many years, and its bed is now almost wholly overgrown with high and thick jungle. It is said traditionally that its ruin was wilful, and the act of an invading army. Near the southern extremity of the bānd there is a village, now surrounded by jungle, called Gaṅgākundapuram. Immediately in its vicinity is a pagoda of very large size and costly workmanship; and close by, surrounded by jungle, are some remains of ancient buildings, now much resembling the mounds or heaps which indicate the site of ancient Babylon, but in which the village elders point out the

various parts of an extensive and magnificent palace. When this palace was in existence Gaṅgākundapuram was the wealthy and flourishing capital of a monarchy, and the great tank spread fertility over miles and miles of what is now trackless forest. It has often been projected to restore that magnificent work, but the scheme has remained in abeyance for want of engineer officers. At some future time it may be successfully prosecuted, but till then this most fertile tract must remain a jungle, and the few inhabitants will still point with pride to the ancient bānd as a monument of the grand and gigantic enterprise of their ancient sovereigns, and compare it contemptuously with the undertakings of their present rulers. Speaking of the noble temple of Gaṅgākundapuram, it must not be omitted that when the lower Kolerun dāikūṭ was built, the structure was dismantled of a large part of the splendid granite sculptures which adorned it, and the enclosing wall was almost wholly destroyed in order to obtain materials for the work. The poor people did their utmost to prevent this destruction and spoliation of a venerated edifice, by the servants of a government that could show no title to it; but of course without success; they were only punished for contempt. A promise was made indeed, that a wall of brick should be built in place of the stone wall that was pulled down; but unhappily it must be recorded that this promise has never been redeemed."

The lower Kolerun dāikūṭ was built, in 1838, according to the scheme and advice of Colonel (now Sir A.) Cotton. I know nothing of the present condition of the temple and remains, but should imagine a great deal of historical and antiquarian value and interest would be discovered by a competent explorer.

SANSKRIT AND OLD CANARESE INSCRIPTIONS.

BY J. F. FLEET, B.A. C.S.

(Continued from page 211.)

No. III.

This is from a copper-plate belonging to Gaṅgavva Kōm Kallappa Gugari of Bēhātī in the Hubballi Tālukā of the Dhārwad District. The original consists of three plates, each $7\frac{1}{2}$ " broad by $11\frac{1}{2}$ " long, strung together by a massive ring, the seal of which bears a figure of the bull Basava or Nandī with the sun and moon above it. The inscription, in the Kāyastha characters and the Sanskrit language, and written across the breadth of the plates, covers the inner side of the first plate, both sides of the

second plate, and the inner and part of the outer side of the third plate.

This inscription mentions the following princes of the Kalachuri family:—

Krishna.

Jōgama.

Paravardi.

Vijaya.

Sōma. Saṅkama. Āhavamalla. Singhapādēva.

- [50] रेतरायपरिवर्तमानसाम्राज्यलक्ष्मीविलास-
 [51] सुखासिकातमासजशसजगंभीरनिरातंकनिष्क-
 [52] लंकचिन्तुनिर्महाराजाधिराजः श्रीमत्सिंह-
 [53] देवः वे(वे)दुवलिशततम्गत(वे) श्रीमद्गवत्या जम-
 [54] दम्नि (मि)कायाः प्रस्यश्चयेष्टादेव्याः(व्या) निवासं महा-
 [55] दिव्यक्षेत्रं श्रीमकु(कु)कनूनामनेपं ग्रामं प्रसिद्ध-
 [56] सीमातमन्वितं निविनिष्ठपञ्चलपापापारामा-
 [57] त्सहितं विभोगाभ्यन्तरमष्टभोगेशः स्वाम्ययुक्त (कं)
 [58] शुल्कदंडसादकावककरमौलिकादेणादिसकल-
 [59] द्रव्यापारवर्जितं स(श)कनृपकालाणि च पंचोत्तर-
 [60] शताधिकसहस्रत(म)गे(वे)शकेशोभकृतंनसरेभास्व(य)यु-
 [61] क्त*मावास्यां सीमवारे व्यतीपातयोगे शुत-
 [62] शीलविद्याविनयसंपन्नैः सदावारप-
 [63] रिपुनाशयमहिमयो साहससंस्थापरी-
 [64] त्तिभ्यो नानागोत्रेभ्यो महत्वा(वा)द्वानेभ्यः(भ्यो) रा-
 [65] जा राजकीयरप्यनंगुलिद्वैक्षण्यं सर्वेनय-
 [66] स्य कुत्वा धारापूर्वकं परमया भक्त्या दत्तवान् । (॥)
 [67] अस्य च धर्मस्य रक्षणे फलं । व(व)ह्मिनेसुभा भू-
 [68] क्ता राजभिः सगरादिभिः । यस्य यस्य यदा
 [] भूमिस्तस्य तस्य तदा फलं । (॥) गण्यते पतितो
 [70] भूमेर्गण्यते वृष्टिर्निदः । [] न गण्यते विशा-
 [71] त्वापि धर्मसंरक्षणे फलं । (॥) अपहरतः समर्थ-
 [72] स्य चाधुदासीनस्य(स्या)त एव विपरीतं फलं । स-
 [73] दत्ता परदत्ता वा यो हरेत् वसुधरा । षष्टि वर्षे-
 [74] सहस्राणि विद्यायां जायते किमिः । (॥) कर्मणा
 [75] मनसा वाचा यः समर्थो ध्रुपेक्षतो(ते) स स्यात्तदेव
 [76] चंडालः सैर्धर्मवतिः कृ(हि)तः । (॥) भव एवाह राम-
 [77] भद्रः ॥ सामान्यो यं धर्मसिन्नुपाणां काले
 [78] काले पालनीयो भवद्भिः । सर्वनेतान्मादि-
 [79] नः पार्थिवान् भूयो भूयो याचते रामभ-
 [80] द्रः ॥ शक्तिन्युत्पत्तिसेवज्ञविद्वन्थी(द्वि)पादसेवि-
 [81] ना । राक्षसादिन्येदेवेन सेयं शासनपद्धतिः । (॥) कू-
 [82] तिरियं विभुवनविवाचकवर्चिनः श्रीमदा-
 [83] दित्येवस्य । लिखितमिदं पठितलक्ष्मीधरे-
 [84] ण । उत्कीर्णं राजविज्ञानिना पदयेन । मंगलमहा-
 [85] श्रीः ॥ § कोटारद दिवाकरदेवनायक-

- [86] ह तम्म केय्य हेंज कोहु भवरोनिपेयदि केव
 [87] मत्तर ऐदनुम ह(वी?)दु मनेपुम मारं(का)को(को)दु(दु)वा-
 (वा)द्वानेभ-
 [88] जनके वि(वि)द्वद् [] ई धर्ममे सासी जेंदु तपदे प्रतिपालि-
 [89] सुवत् ॥

Translation.

May the lord of mankind * preserve this world,—he who is long-lived, who is possessed of the greatest might, whose observances are unbroken, and who is the friend of mankind! May that god preserve us from obstacles, who is the protector of the universe, the sustainer of the earth, the subduer of the enemies of religion, a very four-armed † in respect of his liberality!

The family which bears the appellation of Kalachuri, renowned in the three worlds, is like the ocean, in that it is the source of jewels in the form of warriors.

In that race Krishna became king,—as if he were a second Krishna ‡,—whose deeds are said to have been marvellous even while he was yet a child.

He begat a son, king Jōgama, the destroyer of hostile kings, the receptacle of the glory of those who are worthy to be praised as the bravest of men.

As the moon was produced from the ocean of milk, so from him, the ocean of sincerity, was born king Paramardi, who was beloved by mankind.


And as the receptacle § of that lustre that pervades everything rises from (the mountain) Mēru, so from him there sprang king Vijjana, a very son of an excellent warrior. And as to him:—What region did he not invade?; what country did he not rule?; what foe did he not uproot?; what people, if they but fled to him for refuge, did he not support, even though they might be his enemies?; what riches did he not accumulate?; what gift was there that he did not bestow?; what rites are there with which he did not sacrifice?;—he, king Vijjana, the mountain for the

* The first side of the third plate commences with this letter,—क.

† Probably the reading should be इवाधिकसहस्र, &c., 'one thousand and two,' as this is the number referred to at the end of this inscription and mentioned again in the other Bhatṭa copper-plate.

‡ The second side of the third plate commences with this letter,—वा.

§ This and the following sentence are in the Canarese language, though written in the Sanskrit character.

¶ This letter,—,—is intended to represent the *ka* of the Old Canarese *ka=ka*, to sell, porter.

* Brahma.

† Vishnu.

‡ Vishnu in his incarnation as the son of Vasudēva and Dēvakī.

§ The sun.

production of the jewels of meritorious qualities. Pāṇḍya laid aside his fierceness; the king of Chōla trembled; Vaṅga was broken; and Mālava experienced the fear of death: and as to other kings,—when king Vijjaṇa was conquering the world, what stronghold did they not abandon, and to what region could they betake themselves when put to flight?

From him sprang king Sōma, the receptacle of all accomplishments*, possessed of a full and brilliant court, dispelling the darkness of all regions, causing the white lotuses which were the hands of all hostile kings to close their flowers, making the whole earth white with the lustre of his fame, charmingly placing his feet upon footstools which were the foreheads of all rulers of the earth. What shall be said of him? :— In his expeditions, which of his foes did not betake themselves to flight, abandoning their countries and their treasure, at the confused sounds of the blows of the hammer in his tents (which were to be heard) even amidst his terrible drums sounding in the festival of battle? ; and who were they whose hearts were not torn asunder, they themselves closing their eyes in a swoon? While he protected like a father, and yet, wielding the sceptre, governed with restraint like Yama, mankind experienced the full enjoyment of those pleasures that properly belong to the two worlds.†

After him was born his younger brother, the fortunate king Saṅkama, who was possessed of all the marks of one who has gracious and virtuous characteristics, and who was by nature compassionate.

After him his uterine brother, Āhavamalla,—who was possessed of an excellent intellect, and who gladdened the earth with his perfect good qualities,—became king.

His younger brother was Siṅghapādēva, like to a jewel-mine in respect of his virtues, the giver of joy to the world. Bowed down by (the very mention of) the letters of his name as if by fear-

inspiring arrows, his enemies strove only to preserve their lives. Truly he is praised as a very elephant of a king; though he has a perpetual flow of charity, as an elephant has a perpetual flow of rut, yet he does not incur the reproof of being arrogant, as an elephant does of being infuriated with his passion.

One thousand one hundred and five years of the era of the Śaka king having expired, in the Śūbhakṛit *saṁvatsara*, on Monday the day of the new moon of the month Āśvina, under the Vyatipāta conjunction, he, the fortunate Siṅghapādēva, the supreme king of great kings,—who made much of guests of high birth‡ by reason of his sole aim being the affection of all his subjects, and whose thoughts were ready and calm and profound and free from uneasiness and spotless by reason of his enjoying the happiness that results from dallying with the goddess of imperial dignity who is always and without obstacle nourished by the favour of gods and Brāhmaṇas who are made to thrive and are conciliated by those who have for their assistance all the merits of polity § and abundance of villages (to be bestowed in charity).—with the greatest devotion gave, with libations of water, and as a grant to be respected by all and not to be pointed at with the finger (as an object of confiscation) by even the king or the king's people, to one thousand|| illustrious Brāhmaṇas, of many families,—who were endowed with sacred lore and good character and learning and humility, and who were glorious by reason of their holy deeds which were purified by their excellent observances,—the rich village of Kukkanūra, included in the Beluvala Three-hundred,—a most sacred place as being the abode of the holy Bhagavatī, the mother of the universe, in the visible form of Jyēsthādēvi,—together with its established boundaries, carrying with it the right to treasure-trove and water and stones and groves, &c., including the right of Tribhūga¶, invested

* This is evidently the meaning intended to be given to 'kalāścidai' as applied to Sōma; the whole verse is a play upon words, and this and the remaining epithets are also to be translated in such a way as to apply to the moon ('sōma'), to which Sōma is likened.

† See the terrestrial globe, and the lower regions, the king of which is Yama, the god and judge of the dead.

‡ In the analysis of the compound probably we have to take 'ājñāka,' equivalent to 'ājñāya,' of noble origin, of high birth; but we might also take 'ājñāka,' having no wife.

§ See note ¶ to line 47 in the second side of the second plate in the text.

|| Probably it should properly be 'one thousand and two'; see note ¶ to line 63 in the first side of the third plate in the text.

¶ The meaning of this term is not known; perhaps it is of the same purport as the Marāṭhi expression 'tripṭīddna', a grant to be enjoyed by three generations. At the end of No. 2 of the Hāsi copper-plates (see page 235 of No. XXVII. Vol. IX, of the *Jour. Bomb. Br. R. As. Soc.*) we meet with the verse,

अद्विदन्तं त्रिभिर्भुक् सद्भिष पारंपारिकम् ।
एतानि न निर्वर्तन्ते पूर्वराजकृतानि च ॥

with the proprietorship of the eight sources of enjoyment*, and accompanied by the relinquishment of all property in tolls, fines, imposts, taxes on artisans, perquisites of hereditary officers (!), &c.

And as to the reward of preserving this act of religion:—The earth has been enjoyed by many kings, commencing with Sagara; he, who for the time being possesses land, reaps the benefit of it. The dust of the earth may be counted, and the drops of rain; but the reward of continuing an act of piety cannot be estimated even by the creator. But a different reward awaits him who confiscates (land that has been given as a religious grant), or who, though capable (of preserving it), may manifest indifference:—He who confiscates land that has been given, whether by himself or by another, is born for sixty thousand years as a worm in ordure. He, who, though able (to continue a religious grant), manifests indifference in act or thought or speech, verily then becomes an outcaste beyond the pale of all religion. Therefore has Rāmabhadra said:—“This general bridge of piety of kings should at all times be preserved by you; thus does Rāmabhadra make his earnest request to all future princes.”

The substance of this charter has been composed by Ādityadēva, who worships the feet of learned people who are endowed with power and knowledge. This is the composition of the fortunate Ādityadēva, who is verily the emperor of the three worlds in virtue of his learning. It has been engraved by the learned Lakṣmīdhara. And it has been published abroad by Paṇḍaya, who is in the service of the king. May the greatest prosperity attend it!

Divākara-Daṇḍanāyaka of Kōṭhāra gave the purchase-money of his own cultivated land and bought five *muttams* of cultivated land, and a house at (the village of) Avarētippa, and set them apart to provide food for Brāhmanas. The Thousand-and-two shall unfailingly preserve this act of piety!

NO. IV.

This is from plate No. 105 of Major Dixon's

* That which is bestowed by (libations of) water, and that which is enjoyed by three persons, and that which is preserved by good people,—these (grants) and those which have been made by former kings, are not reversed.* Again, in another inscription which records the grant of a large number of villages I find that the total number of villages is divided into three lots, of which one is set apart for the king, another for the gods, and the third “and best of all”

work. The original, in the Old Canarese characters and language, is on a stone-tablet at ‘Taldagoondē,’ which is perhaps the same place as the ‘Taulagoonda’ of the maps, close to Bala-gāṃve; Tāṇagandūr or Tāṇagandūr† would seem to be the old form of the same name. The dimensions of the tablet are given as 3' high by 4' 11" broad, but the inscription is only eight or nine inches in breadth; perhaps this is a mistake for 3' 4" high by 11" broad. The emblems at the top of the stone are a standing figure of a man, probably a priest, with a cow and calf on his left hand.

The inscription is a Chāṇkya inscription of the time of Jayasīma II or Jagadīśamalla, whose date is given by Sir W. Elliot as from about Śaka 940 to about Śaka 962; the date in the present instance is Śaka 950 (A.D. 1028-9).

Transcription.

- | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------|
| [1] ಶ್ರೀ(?) | ಸ್ವಸ್ತಿ | ಸಮಸ್ತಭುವನಾಶ್ರಯಂ |
| [2] ಶ್ರೀ(ಶ್ರೀ ಪು)ಪ್ಪಿ:ವಕ್ತೃಭಾ | | ಮಹಾರಾ- |
| [3] ಜಾಧಿರಾಜ | ಪರಮೇಶ್ವರ | ಪರಮ- |
| [4] ಭಟ್ಟಾರಕ | | ಸತ್ಯಾಶ್ರಮಕೌಶಿಕ- |
| [5] ಲಕಂ | ಜಾಲಸ್ಯಾಭರಣಂ | ಜ- |
| [6] ಸಿ(ಗ)ವೇಶಮಲ್ಲ | | ಶ್ರೀಮಜ್ಜಯಸಿಂಹ- |
| [7] ವೇವರ | ರಾಜ್ಯಮುಕ್ತಕೀರ್ತನಾಭವಿ(ವೃ)ದ್ಧಿ(ವೃ)ದ್ಧಿ- | |
| [8] ಸಿ | ಸುತಮಿರೆ | ಸ(ಕ)ಕ ವರದ(ವರದ) |
| [9] ಗೌಂನಿಮ | | ವಿಭವನನತರ- |
| [10] ದ | ಶ್ರದ್ಧ್ಯ ಕುರ್ದ(ದ್ಧ) ಜ | ಸೋಮವ(ವ)ರ- |
| [11] ದುತ್ತರಾಯಣನ(ನಾ)ಶ್ರಾ- | | |
| [12] ಪ್ರಿಯಸ್ತು | | ಶ್ರೀಮದವಾಧಿಪಸ್ಯ- |
| [13] ಕಾರನಾಥ | ಕುಂ(ಕು)ಸ್ತವಿಸಿ | ಮೂ- |
| [14] ವೆ(ವ)ಶ್ರೀಶ್ಚಾರ್ಸಿಂಹಂ | | ಸಕಂಮಿ- |
| [15] ದ್ವರ್(ವ) | | ಶ್ರೀಪ್ರಣಮೀಶ್ವರವೇವರ- |
| [16] ಸ್ವದಿಂವದ | ಸಕಯ | ಪ್ರಮಾ- |
| [17] ಸೋ(ಸಾಧಿಂ) | ಮಾರು | ಹ:ಸವರು |
| [18] ಅಚಂದ್ರಾರ್ಕಶಾರಂ | | ಬರಂ |

for Brāhmanas; perhaps this may be the ‘Triloka.’

* The ‘ashfabhava,’ or eight sources of enjoyment, are a habitation, a bed, raiment, jewels, women, flowers, perfumes, and araca-nuts and betel-leaves.

† Both forms occur—the former in line 17 of No. I of the present series, and the latter in line 20 of No. 105 of Major Dixon's work.

- [19] ಸದೇವಂ(ವ)ಸ್ತಾತಿ ಮ(ಮಾ)ದಿವ ಧಂ(ಧ)ರ್ಮ ಈ
 [20] ಧರ್ಮಮಂ ಪ್ರತಿಪಾಠಸುಮಂ(ಸ್ಮಿ)ಃ
 [21] ಪಾರ್ವತಾನಿ ಕುರುಕ್ಷೇತ್ರವಸ್ತಿ
 [22] ಸಂಯುತ ಕವಿಲಯಮಂ ಸಾ-
 [23] ಯುತ ಪ್ರಾಪ್ತವಂತಿ ಕೇಶವ
 [24] ಭವಮಕು(ಕು) [||]

Translation.

Sri! Hail! While the reign of Jagadēka-malla, the glorious Jayasīṃhadēva,—the asylum of the universe, the favourite of the world, the supreme king of great kings, the supreme lord, the most venerable, the glory of the family of Satyāśraya, the ornament of the Chālukyas,—was continuing with perpetual increase:—

A religious grant, to continue as long as the moon and sun and stars may last, consisting of twelve *śāstras** (of land) by the (measure of the) staff called *Agraśimbada-gaḷa*† of the god Śrī-Pragmāśvaraśivā,‡ was made by the Thirty-two-thousand §, collectively, of Kunda-vige which was the locality of the *Agraśāstra* || of the holy Anādi ¶ on Monday the fifth day of the bright fortnight of the month Pūṣya of the Vibhava *saṃvatsara*, which was the year of the Śaka 950.

Those who preserve this act of piety shall obtain the reward of having given a thousand tawny-coloured cows to a thousand Brāhmanas at Vārāṇasī or Kuruksētra!

No. V.

No. 27 of Mr. Hope's collection is an Old Canarese inscription of ninety-three lines,* each line containing about seventy-two letters, on a stone-tablet which formerly stood in one of the principal streets of Saundatti, the chief town of the Parasagad Tāluka of the Belgaum District, but has been placed by me, for better security, against the outer wall of the Māmlatdār's

* 'Māru' in modern Canarese means two yards, a fathom.

† 'Dīṇḍa' has various meanings; that intended here is probably a globe or ball; 'agraśimba,' the fore-part, top, or surface of a 'dīṇḍa.'

‡ From the passage commencing in line 41 of No. 103 of Major Dixon's work, another 'Taldagoondē' inscription, this appears to be a name of Brahma.

§ Some religious body or some guild is intended. The Thirty-two-thousand are mentioned again in lines 19, 23, and 26 of No. 101 and line 20 of No. 106 of Major Dixon's work, both of these also being 'Taldagoondē' inscriptions. In the latter passage they are called the Thirty-two-thousand of 'Śrīmanmahādēva' Jagrāma-Tāṅgundār.

Kachēri. I have published it, with a translation, in No. XXIX, Vol. X, of the *Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society*, pp. 260 to 286. It is an inscription, dated Śaka 1151 (A.D. 1229-30), the Sarvadhāri *saṃvatsara*, of the time of Lakshmidēva II of the family of the Raṭṭa or Raṭṭa Great Chieftains of Sugandhavarti (Saundatti) and Vēṇugrāma or Vēḷugrāma (Belgaum), and records the building of a *līṅga* temple of the god Mallik-ārjunadēva or Mallināthadēva, near the tank called Nāgarakere outside the city of Sugandhavarti, by Kēśarāja or Kēśavarāja of Kōlār, and the allotment of tithes and grants of land. It contains also an account of the families of the chiefs of Kōlār and of Banihattī.

It will probably be useful to reproduce here the genealogy of the Raṭṭa Great Chieftains of Saundatti and Belgaum deduced by me from this inscription, together with three others at Saundatti,—one at Mulgund in the Gadak (Dambal) Tāluka of the Dhārwad District,—one at Nēsergi in the Sampgaum Tāluka of the Belgaum District,—and one at Kalhoḷi and one at Kōṇṇūr in the Gōkāk (Gōkāmve) Tāluka of the same District,—in connexion with some other inscriptions which I have not published in detail. Prithvirāma was the first of the family to be invested with the position of a Great Chieftain,—by Kṛishṇarāja, the Rāshtrakūṭa, monarch to whom he was subordinate. His descendants, down to Sēna II, were feudatories of the Chālukya kings; but Sēna II and his successors became independent, though they continued to bear the title of Mahāmāṇḍalēśvara. Lakshmidēva II is the last of the family of whom I have as yet obtained any notice. The only break in the line of descent is between Śāntivarmā and Nanna; not more than one generation can well have intervened, and probably Nanna succeeded Śāntivarmā, though he may not have been his son.

|| 'Agraśāstra',—a grant of land to Brāhmanas for religious purposes.

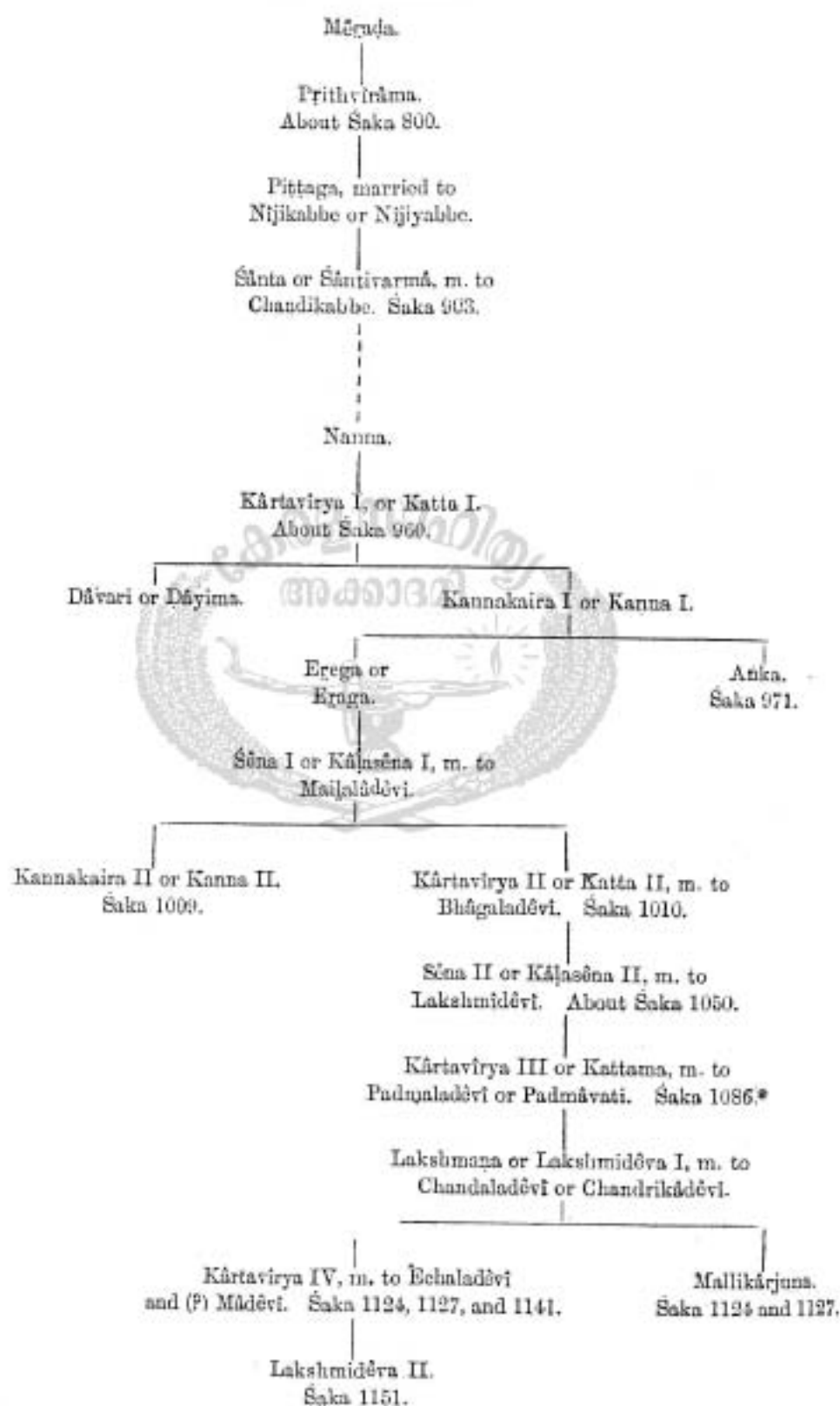
¶ 'He who has no beginning, who exists from all eternity.'

* Photographed also by Mr. Burgess for the Bombay Archaeological Survey; see his *Report*, 1874, p. 44, No. 18.

† Either Kōrti-Kolhār on the banks of the Kṛishṇā not far from Kalāḍgi, as I at first supposed, or, perhaps, the well-known Kōlār, which also is pronounced Kolhār, about forty miles to the E. by N. of Bēṅgalūr in Mysūr. There should be inscriptions at one or other of these two places which will settle the question.

‡ 'Raṭṭa' is an abbreviation or corruption of 'Rāshtrakūṭa'.

Genealogical Table of the Raṭṭa Great Chieftains of Saundatti and Belgaum (see page 279).



* Inscription at Bail-Hoṅgal; *Ind. Ant.*, vol. IV, p. 116.

MISCELLANEA.

PĀṆINĪ.

"Sanskrit Grammar is based on the grammatical aphorisms of Pāṇini, a writer now generally supposed to have lived in the fourth century B.C. At that time Sanskrit had ceased to be a living language, and was only kept up artificially by being made the vehicle for the education of the upper classes. It would be interesting to know what style of language Pāṇini chose as the standard of his observations. It was certainly not the idiom of the Vedas, as he seldom treats this with his usual accuracy, and only mentions it in order to show its discrepancies from the classical style, or, as he terms it, the language of the world. We believe that long before his own time a scientific and poetical literature had already sprung up, and that a certain number of writers were chosen by him and his predecessors as the representatives and patterns of the classical language. Pāṇini was himself a poet, and the

great commentary on his grammatical rules contains many fragments of early poetry. Treatises on law, long anterior to the law-book of Manu, are still in existence, and names of ancient writers on other than sacred subjects are frequently cited. However this may be, it is quite certain that the so-called classical Sanskrit, as taught by Pāṇini and his numerous commentators and imitators, is not a language which had its foundation in the colloquial usage of an entire nation or the educated portion of it, but rather in the confined sphere of grammatical schools which fed themselves on the rich patrimony of previous illustrious ages. This development of the Sanskrit finds a striking analogy in the Rabbinic language, which also is to be traced back to the endeavours of religious scholars to endue with new life an idiom rapidly dying out."—From Prof. Aufrecht's Report to the Philological Society on Sanskrit Grammars.

BOOK NOTICES.

MAP OF ANCIENT INDIA, by COL. H. YULE, C.B., in Dr. Wm. Smith's Historical Atlas of Ancient Geography, Biblical and Classical. (London: J. Murray. 1874).

It is about twenty-two years since Dr. H. Kiepert of Berlin constructed his "Map of Ancient India with the Indian, Classical, and principal Modern names," to illustrate Prof. Lassen's *Indische Alterthumskunde*. It was compiled, of course, directly under the learned Lassen's personal supervision, on a scale of 1 to 50,000,000, and measuring 23 by 28 inches, with additional maps, in the corners, of the boundaries of the modern Indian languages, and of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula and adjacent islands. Being the first serious attempt to identify on the map of modern India the names mentioned by Ptolemy, Strabo, Arrian, and other Greek writers, and to combine with them the geographical notices of Sanskrit writers, it was only to be expected that errors would occur. The map was, however, a creditable performance, and though identifications of important localities were made with some degree of rashness and had to be received with caution, and while the Sanskrit names were disfigured by Lassen's peculiarities of transliteration—using *k* for क, *g* for ग, and *j* for ज,—it was indispensable to the student of Indian Antiquity. Colonel Yule's map is not so ambitious as Kiepert's: it gives indeed both Arabic and Sanskrit names in Gothic letters, but only a few of them, and these apparently with the object of attesting the cor-

rectness of the identification of the Greek names. The map is only on half the scale of Kiepert's, and the corners are filled up with (1) an enlarged map of Pentapotamia or the Panjāb, (2) a small map of the Eastern Peninsula, and (3) of Lassen's India of Ptolemy. It is needless to say that Col. Yule's map differs widely from, and is superior to Kiepert's in the location of the names mentioned in Greek writers. The Oriental student will only regret that it is not on a larger scale, and made to embrace the Sanskrit geography also:—indeed the time has now come when we ought to have maps to illustrate not only the ancient Western classics, but also the India of Buddhist and Brāhmapical writers down to the eighth century, and of the Arabs and others from the eighth to the end of the fourteenth century. With the modern improvements in the printing of maps, it would be an easy matter to print these, together with a really good modern map, all from the same physical outlines, on a scale of between 125 and 150 miles, or about 2", to an inch. Four such maps would be invaluable to Orientalists everywhere, and would help to settle many doubtful points in the ancient geography of India, whether Greek, Chinese, Arab, or Sanskrit.

In the introduction to the Atlas, Colonel Yule has judiciously gone into considerable detail, filling nearly three closely printed pages, each the size of his map,—on the grounds of his many new identifications. This introduction is full of important

matter: it begins with the nature of Ptolemy's data, and the manner of dealing with them. The data he thinks must have consisted of (1) coasting itineraries of seamen or merchants; (2) routes of foreign traders or travellers; (3) lists of rivers, with the mountains in which they rise; and (4) partial lists of the nations of India. Much of this material "was before Ptolemy only in the form of maps already compiled. His process seems to have been from these, and from the other data in his possession, to compile his own map, modified by his judgment and his theories: then to cover this with a graticule of meridians and parallels; and finally to draw up his tables, and the miscellaneous particulars embodied with his tables, directly from the map as it now lay before him. An illustration of this process is seen in his anonymous tributaries of the Ganges and Indus, of which he assigns the exact sources and confluences, in latitude and longitude, whilst he cannot give their names. Plainly, he took these numerical indications from the map before him, and the streams themselves in the first instance from maps already compiled or sketched by others." Material apparently so derived must then be dealt with cautiously, and not made arbitrarily to cover the whole surface of India, which could not all be equally well known to him. Moreover, his divisions, as Col. Yule remarks, "are heterogeneous. Some are political; such as *Pandion's Kingdom*, and probably *Larike* and *Ariake*. *Masolia* may be a foreigner's handy generalization, like 'the Carnatic'; *Indo-Skythia* may be either of these; a great part are ethnic, and seemingly derived from what we may call Pauranic lists, e.g. *Phyllitis*, *Ambastae*; some from the same lists are no divisions at all, ethnic or otherwise, but mere indications of peculiar communities, such as *Tobassi*, *Tâpazas* or ascetics in the woods of Khândesh, and *Gymnosophistes*, probably similar gatherings of eremites about Haridwar." Then Ptolemy had no means of properly co-ordinating the various materials he had, so that, in various instances, cities said to belong to certain nations really did not; and to overlook this, as Lassen has apparently done, is sure to lead to mistakes.

Colonel Yule would be the last to suppose that even all the identifications he himself has not marked as doubtful will be accepted as final; but many of them are such as will be generally received as satisfactory. We can only notice a few of them. When we attempt to identify Ptolemy's mouths of the *Goarîs* and *Binda*, "we shall find", he says, "that they are the mouths of the strait that isolates Salsette and Bombay", and he agrees

with Mannert that "the names *Goarîs* and *Binda* really stand for *Godâvarî* and *Bhimâ*, of which Ptolemy had got an inkling from some Dekhan itinerary, naming the rivers but not their direction." So far as the *Goarîs* is concerned this is satisfactory, for *Nasika* and *Baithana* or *Paithâna* are both placed on it, or rather on the river from which it takes off. The *Binda*, which Lassen identifies with the *Vaiitharna* river in the North Konkan, we might be inclined to regard as the *Kâm wâ dî*, or *Bhivandî* creek, which falls into the *Thâna* creek, were it not that it is so small a stream. The estuary of the *Ulâs*, however, seems to suit as well, as far as locality is concerned, and it is a noble river from the point of junction with the *Kâlu*, eight miles above Kalyân, to its entrance into the *Thâna* creek; but if Ptolemy's *Binda* cannot be identified with either of these, there is no serious objection to, and even a probability in favour of, Col. Yule's suggestion that it must stand for the *Bhimâ*. *Tyana* and *Masolia* he would identify with the *Pinâkâ* or *Pennar* and the *Krishnâ*. The *Orudia* mountains, hitherto identified with the Eastern Ghâts, Yule makes the *Vaidurya* or northern section of the *Sahyâdrî* range, and with apparently good reason.

The west coast line was, of course, the best known of any part of India to Alexandrian merchants, and much attention had been given by Dr. Vincent and others to the geography of the *Periplus*, &c. and the identification of the ports on it, but with less success than might have been expected. *Nusaripa*, *Suppara*, *Tyndis*, *Muziria*, &c., were either not identified at all, or incorrectly. That the first two are represented by *Nausâri* and *Supârâ* (a little north of Bassaein) was first pointed out in an ephemeral tract* a few years ago; and *Muziria* is now shown to be not *Mangalûr*, but *Muyîri-Kodu*, opposite to *Kodan-galûr*; *Tyndis* may be *Kadalundî*, i.e. *Kadal Tunjî*, a few miles north of *Tanur*, near *Bêpur*; and *Nelkynda* the same as *Kallada*; while the district of *Limyrike* (*Λιμυρικη*), or rather *Δαμυρικη*—*Damir-ike*, is the Tamil-speaking country; and *Ariake* the Aryan-speaking country.

Singha emporium, also called *Timula*, and by the Arabs *Çaimur* or *Jaimur*, which Kiepert has at Bassaein, is removed to Chaul†—a much more satisfactory identification. Other positions, however, must still be considered very doubtful. *Sazantiana* is placed at *Sujintra* near *Khâmbay*; Dr. J. Wilson had previously suggested *Ajanthâ*; but might it not have been the same as *Sânchi* in *Bhopâl*? *Bardasima* and *Syrastra* are made to

* *Notes of a Visit to Gujârât* (1869), pp. 13, 17, and *conf. Ind. Ant.* vol. I. p. 321.

† *Conf. Ind. Ant.* vol. III. pp. 100, 214, 323; Yule's *Marco Polo*, vol. II. p. 353.

correspond to the modern Parbandar and Navibandar respectively,—neither of them known to be old places: Gumli or Bhumli in the Bardāhills, or perhaps Bhadravati, now Bhadravār, on the coast of Kachh, might be suggested for *Bardasima*, and Chorwād or Jirāval for *Harata* or *Syrastra*—*s* and *ch* in the local pronunciation of Soratha and other parts of Gujarāt being often changed into *ā*. *Theopāla*, which Col. Yule marks with doubt about Wadh-vān, could scarcely have been there, though the place is old: but possibly it might be meant for *Ġastruñjaya* or *Suraśāila* (the rock of the gods)—though that never was a city, but is visible from the mouth of the river as a large flat-topped hill covered with sacred edifices.

We cannot here enter further into details of the new identifications: several of these in the south of India are due to Dr. A. C. Burnell and the Rev. Dr. Caldwell. With this map before them and Colonel Yule's notes on it, we incline to think that some of our readers might be able, from local knowledge, to help to the settlement of several of the doubtful and disputed sites. For the use of Indian students it is very desirable that the map, with the letterpress and index belonging to it, should be published separately, as few can afford to purchase the magnificent six-guinea Atlas in which it appears.

Notes.—Rivers in the Kōṣkan have generally two names—the one that of the uppermost part on their estuary, used by the maritime population; the other that of the stream itself, used by dwellers inland: e.g. the *Kāmyāñi* mentioned above, is always spoken of, *good* navigation, as the *Bhīmandīkī khāñi*, or estuary (lit. brackish part) of *Bhīvañi*; and the beautiful *Kondalka*, whose mouth forms the harbour of Chaul (Marāṭhī *Chaul*) is called the *Robe-Ashjanīkhāñi*. Sometimes there is a third name, used chiefly by Brāhmins and for purposes of worship; as *Tāramāñi*, the esoteric name of the *Kālā* or *Malesj Ghāt* river. The indications supplied by the modern geography of Western India on the points touched on are vague, but worth recording. Upon the *Vaitharna*, within two days' march of the highest salt-water, is the town of Gore, which is not now a large place, but still keeps up some trade in rice and timber with the ports at the mouth of the river, and probably had more in ancient days, especially if the neighbouring hill-fort of *Koj* was then in existence, which is possible, but not provable.

The *Godhvārī* is not well known by that name at *Nāik*, *Pañhan*, or any place on the western part of its course, but generally called the *Gaṅgā*.

The so-called *Thāpa Creek* is not properly a creek at all, but a depression, or backwater, reaching from the head of Bombay Harbour to Bassein (Marāṭhī *Vasni*). Its shallowest point is where a ridge of rocks just south of *Thāpa* affords a foundation for the G. I. P. Railway bridge. About two miles north of this it receives the "*Kalyāñ*

creek," or estuary of the *Ulās*, and its tributaries, but does not change its own name; and, still further on, the *Bhīvañi* and *Lakhvī* creeks. The land-floods of all these pass out northwards by Bassein; the ridge of rock mentioned above keeps their water out of Bombay Harbour. It is certain that the accommodation in all of them for large vessels has been decreasing for centuries, owing to silt, and to the advance of embanked rice-fields. Opposite Bassein is a village called *Ghorbandar*; but the name is probably rather modern. The northernmost part, however, of Bombay Harbour is at *Bhavadp*; and the most northern of the ancient exits is at *Bandora* (probably a Portuguesification of an old native name).

It is also to be remarked that of the four great traffic routes into the North Kōṣkan, the *Bhor*, *Nāka*, and *Malesj Ghāts* pass over watersheds dividing large tributaries of the *Bhīma* from those of the *Ulās* in such a manner that the careless commercial traveller would hardly notice where one ends and the other begins; and the head-waters of the *Vaitharna* are equally close to an affluent of the *Gaṅgā* at the *Thal Ghāt*.

The tendency to connect rivers running different ways is characteristic of ancient, and especially Eastern geography. It is constantly to be remarked in the Hindu legends about sacred streams, and may be noticed in the interesting map published by Mr. Rehatsek in vol. I. of the *Antiquary* (p. 370), which, from internal evidence, I suppose to have been drawn by a native of Oudh or Hindustān who had made the pilgrimage to Mecca via Surat. Information given by Arab merchants (the successors in "right line" of some of Ptolemy's authorities) to African geographers is marked by the same characteristic. My conjecture is that the *Gonris* is the conjunct *Godhvārī* and *Vaitharna*, and the *Binda* made up of the *Bhīma* and *Ulās* and their tributaries, including the *Bhīvañi* (Muslimānic *Bhimāñi*) creek.—W. P. S.

THE ROMANTIC LEGEND OF SAKYA BUDDHA: from the Chinese-Sanskrit. By Samuel Beal. Sm. 8vo, 395 pp. (London: Trübner and Co. 1875.)

In the dedication of this volume the author states that "when he first discovered in the India Office Library a Chinese copy of the work, he purposed to publish an entire translation of it; but being unable to carry out this purpose he still desired to publish it in as complete a form as possible. But even here fresh difficulties arose, nor should he have been able to produce this abbreviated translation but for the generous support of Mr. J. Fergusson, F.R.S., D.C.L."

It is a translation of the Chinese version of the *Abhinishkramana Sūtra**, done into that language by Dnyanakuta, a Buddhist from Northern India, about the end of the sixth century A.D. The colophon at the end runs thus:—"It may be asked, 'By what title is this book to be called?' to which we reply, the *Mahāsāṅghikās* call it *Ta-see* ('great thing': *Mahāvastu*); the *Sarvāstivādās* call it *Ta-chang-yeu* ('great magnificence': *Lalitā Vastava*); † the *Kāśyāpiyas* call it *Fo-wang-yin-in* ('former history of Buddha'); the *Dharmaguptas*

* Vassilief's *Bouddhisme*, § 114; Burnouf's *Lotus de la Bonne Loi*, p. 333; and *Ind. Ant.* vol. IV. pp. 91, 92.

† Vassilief's *Bouddhisme*, § 176.

call it *Shi-ki-a-mu-ni-Fo-pen-king* ("the different births of Śākya-Muni-Buddha"—translated into Chinese about A.D. 70); the Mahiṣāsakās call it *Pi-ni-tsung-kan* ("Foundation of the Vinaya Pitaka"). The original Sanskrit seems to have been lost, but as it is attributed to Āśvagōṣha, a contemporary of Kaṇishka, it may belong to the first century A.D.*

Mr. Beal of course notices the point of agreement both in the teachings and events of the life of Christ and of Śākya Muni; "it would," he says, "be a natural inference that many of the events in the legend of Buddha were borrowed from the Apocryphal Gospels,† if we were certain that these Apocryphal Gospels had not borrowed from it." But, recognizing the difficulties in the way of any satisfactory explanation, he enters into no discussion, thinking it better at once to allow "that in our present state of knowledge there is no complete explanation to offer. We must wait until dates are finally and certainly fixed. We cannot doubt, however," he concludes, "that there was a large mixture of Eastern tradition, and perhaps Eastern teaching, running through Jewish literature at the time of Christ's birth, and it is not unlikely that a certain amount of Hebrew folk-lore had found its way to the East. It will be enough for the present to denote this intercommunication of thought, without entering further into minute comparisons."

The volume is closely printed and contains a mass of curious legends, but, most unfortunately, many passages of the original seem to be omitted without the slightest indication of their contents; this is a system of translating Oriental works that we must deplore, is coming too much into vogue. There are in such works much that may be quite unworthy of translation, but few men if any, however learned they may be, are able to decide what may and what may not be of great importance in helping to unravel the many points of chronology, authorship, derivation, &c., that are constantly turning up for discussion; and where a passage has to be omitted, its position, extent, and contents ought always to be noted, however briefly.

Then, though we have sixty chapters, many of them divided into distinct sections, we have no table of Contents, while the Index fills very little over two pages in 395, supplying about one proper name to two pages of the text, and less than 300 references in all—an utterly inadequate guide to the varied contents, speakers, and references in a book that is so interesting, as far as it goes, that

its defects and omissions are the more to be regretted.

THE HISTORY OF INDIA, as told by its own Historians. —The Muhammadan Period. The Posthumous Papers of the late Sir H. M. Elliot, K.C.B., edited and continued by Prof. John Dowson, M.R.A.S. Vol. VI. (London: Tribner and Co., 1875.)

In this sixth volume we have extracts from nineteen different native works, some of them very brief indeed. The first 250 pages are mostly occupied with the reign of Akbar, continued from the previous volume, and to some extent relating to the same events as there detailed by other writers. Nearly half of this is occupied with extracts from the great *Akbar-Nāma* of Abū-l Fazl, and its supplement, the *Tukhṣ-i Akbar Nāma* of Inṣāṭ, llā;—from the earlier pages of the former of which works we had already copious abstracts in Price's *Retrospect of Muhammadan History*; and the 83 separate extracts here given from it are translated for the first time by Prof. Dowson, while those from the latter work, of which no copy of the original is known in England, were translated by Lieut. Chalmers of the Madras Army and used by Elphinstone. Then follow extracts from the *Akbar-Nāma* of Shaikh Illahdād, Faizī Sirhindī, by Ensign F. Mackenzie and the editor, extending over 31 pages; one out of the whole series of letters forming the *Wāḳ'at* of Shaikh Faizī, and translated for Sir H. M. Elliot by Lieut. Pritchard, and a few extracts from *Wihāya-i Asad Beg*, also entirely translated for Sir H. M. Elliot by Mr. B. W. Chapman, B.C.S. Next we have extracts from the *Tārīkh-i Hakkī*, *Zubdat-i Tawārīkh*, *Rawzat-i Tadhīn*, *Mudakhkhat-i Tawārīkh*, *Tārīkh-i Firishṭa*, *Ma-dar-i Rabīn*, and *Anja' u-l Akhbar* occupying 76 pages, reprinted from Sir H. Elliot's original published volume. These conclude the information relating to Akbar; and the editor prefaces the extracts bearing on the reign of Jahāngīr with a valuable and important preliminary note on the different editions of the original Memoirs of this Emperor. This is followed by 136 pages of extracts from the *Tārīkh-i Salṭa Shāhī* or *Tārīkh-i Jahāngīrī* and *Wāḳ'at-i Jahāngīrī*, translated by Major Price, Sir H. M. Elliot, the editor and others; but this is apparently only a portion of what Sir H. M. Elliot left in MS. The extracts from the *Tatīmna-i Wāḳ'at-i Jahāngīrī* of Muḥammad Hādī, and the *Ikbāl-nāma-i Jahāngīrī* of Muḥammad Khān, are almost wholly by the editor, while those from the *Ma-dar-i Jahāngīrī*, *Intikhab-i Jahāngīrī Shāhī*, and note on the *Subh-i Sādik*, are largely by Sir H. M. Elliot himself. The Appendix contains six articles, the first on the early

* Vide ante, pp. 91, 141; Mme. Mary Summers, *Histoire du Bouddha-Sakya-Monni*, pp. 188, 189.

† Compare, for example, the *Gospel of the Infancy*,

cap. xx., "Our Lord learning his Alphabet," with the account given at pp. 67-71 of Mr. Beal's volume. Conf. also Beal's *Travels of Fah Hian and Sung Fun*, pp. lxxii. lxxiii. and Farrar's *Life of Christ*, vol. I. pp. 214, 215.

use of Gunpowder in India, is a reprint, with some alterations and additions by Sir H. Elliot himself. The comments on the Institutes of Jahāngir, and the Bibliographical notices, are also his work. The extracts from the *Shash Pat'h-i Kāngrā* were prepared under his superintendence; those from a biographical work of 'Abdu-l Hakk Dehlawi were made by Major A. R. Fuller, and the editor has applied an oft-expressed want by giving a complete translation of the Introduction to Firishhta's great history.

The volume will be found very valuable for the study of the particular period to which it relates, but we cannot but express disappointment that the materials supplied are given in so very fragmentary a form: many of the works from which extracts are translated would be quite unworthy of translation in full, and perhaps none of them are very deserving of this, but one of the best might have been selected for nearly entire translation, with summaries of all the omissions, and the extracts from other works made to do duty in the more subordinate form of notes to this text. The objections in the way of this would have been most trivial in comparison with the advantages to the general reader. Then much of the materials left ready to hand by Sir H. M. Elliot is being passed over because, in the editor's opinion, it is not sufficiently important to be published: a certain amount of judgment in this matter he might doubtless to exercise, but no one, however well read in history, can say infallibly what scrap of information may or may not come to be of importance, and it would be much better that he gave us rather too much than too little of the MS. that lies ready to his hand—summarizing what he does not think at all worth printing *in extenso*, that his readers may know the real character and contents of the omissions.

But the greatest defect volumes such as these would have is the entire absence of indexes, and even of analytical tables of contents. This omission is but little creditable either to editor or publishers,—as a good index is really indispensable for reference to volumes such as these, filled with extracts of the most varied contents, and treating again and again, under different authors, of the same personages and events.

INDIAN WISDOM, or Examples of the Religious, Philosophical, and Ethical Doctrines of the Hindus: with a brief History of the chief Departments of Sanskrit Literature, and some account of the Past and Present Condition of India Moral and Intellectual. By Monier Williams, M.A., Boden Professor of Sanskrit in the University of Oxford. (London: W. H. Allen, 1875.)

The object of this book is briefly stated in the preface, and is a reply to the question, Is it possible to obtain from any one book a good

general idea of the character and contents of Sanskrit literature? Is it possible to get an insight into the mind, habits of thought, and customs of the great Hindu people, and a correct knowledge of a system of belief and practice which has prevailed for three thousand years?

No one volume assuredly did contain a *précis* of such knowledge, and we are satisfied that any one who would have the patience to dip into these five hundred and odd pages, either systematically as a student, or cursorily as an amateur, would not fail to rise up with a feeling of pleasurable wonder at the intellectual phenomenon of an isolated literature of such expansion and such variety, yet free from contact with the outer world. The Hindu sage borrowed nothing, imitated nothing, was even aware of the existence of nothing beyond the limits of his literary consciousness and the peculiar bent of his own genius. In the dawn of his intellectual life he composed Vedic hymns and elaborated a system of nature-worship: to preserve the correct understanding of these treasures, he composed a system of commentaries and spun a web of grammar the like of which the world has never seen. As he advanced in self-consciousness, different orders of Hindu minds worked out different systems of philosophy, some religious, some opposed to all religions. As each generation overlaid the work of its predecessor, new dogmas arose, new modes of treatment of old doctrines, new definitions, new hair-splitting, which few can understand without contracting a headache, and the majority of mankind could not understand at all.

A later age began to make laws and codify laws, to construct a cast-iron system for the control of all future generations, the strangling of all new ideas, the arrest of all possible progress—Vain effort at Benares as at Rome! At the same time the fount of poetry, which lies at the bottom of the hearts of all nations, burst forth into magnificent epics in glorification of the heroes and demigods of the past: to them, in due course, succeeded the drama, and a class of poems which may be called elegiac, or lyric, and prose-writings of a didactic character. Last of all were the legendary tales and traditions, written in a later age to prop up the uncompromising pantheism to which centuries of intellectual isolation and philosophical conceit had reduced the Hindu, in spite of his fine intellect, unwearied industry, and magnificent literature. Of genuine history there is not one reliable fragment.

And the whole of this literature is clothed in Sanskrit, a language of unrivalled force, variety, and flexibility, wonderfully preserved, considering that for many centuries the Vedic hymns were

handed down orally from mouth to mouth, until, according to the best opinions, about four hundred years before the Christian era, the necessity of a written medium made itself felt, as the retention of the accumulating mass of commentary exceeded even the power of an Eastern memory. That any indigenous alphabet was elaborated in India is neither asserted nor can be believed; we must fall back on the theory that a form of the Phœnician alphabet was adopted and adapted, and we know as a fact that such an alphabet exists in the inscriptions of king Aśoka two and a half centuries before Christ.

Professor Williams has done good service in enabling the extent and nature of this great treasure to be understood within reasonable limits and in a popular form. It is a surprising fact that this great literature in its long solitary course, like the Nile, should have received no affluents, and yet, by some universal law of intellectual life, should have developed into the known forms of dogma, legend, philosophy, epos, and drama. Had the soldiers of Alexander the Great not mutinied in the Panjāb the result might have been different. Dr. Legge is doing the same great work with the Chinese classics, which have maintained from the earliest period a similar isolation; and thus the materials have been slowly collecting which will enable the on-coming generation to grapple on the comparative method with the great problem of the growth of thought and wisdom in the older world, as evidenced in the literary remains of the great Āryan, Semitic, Hamitic, and so-called Turanian families, which have survived the wreck of ages.

It is admitted by the author that much has been done by scholars to prepare translations in European languages of isolated works, such as the Vedic hymns, the law-books, the dramatic works, the Purāṇas, and the epics: they are too numerous to require more than a passing allusion, and they vary in merit and wideness of scope, but there has never hitherto "existed any one work of moderate dimensions, like the present, accessible to general readers—composed by any one Sanskrit scholar with the direct aim of giving Englishmen, who are not necessarily Sanskritists, a continuous sketch of the chief departments of Sanskrit literature, Vedic and post-Vedic, with accompanying translations of select passages, to serve as examples for comparison with the literary productions of other countries."* Such was the author's avowed object, and we consider that he

has eminently succeeded. Not only is such a conspectus of the knowledge and literature of the Hindus valuable as throwing light upon the feelings and customs of this great people, but it has the additional advantage of enabling the general scholar to compare the out-turn of the Hindu mind and taste with the similar productions of other natives at the respective epochs. The author mentions that he has enough for a second volume, but he has wisely restricted himself within reasonable limits, as he wishes to popularize the subject. He has given us specimens of each of the great branches of literature, and those who seek for more know where to find it.

Throughout these pages we find a healthy catholic spirit on the religious aspect of the question: no sickly or faint-hearted depreciation of the truth and excellence of the faith adopted by civilized Europe for many centuries, but an ample acknowledgment of the strong points of other religions of other countries at an earlier epoch, and a calm refutation of the dishonest and ignorant notion that all that is good in ethics and dogmas sprang into existence at one moment—at the time of the Christian era. It is one of the special advantages of having a long series of productions of many centuries, to be able to note how the innate longing after goodness in the human race strove to make itself known in spite of surrounding disadvantageous circumstances.

It is impossible that we can do more than notice the heads of a book which is in itself an epitome of the treasures of the most learned nation of the East, where, like everything else, literature is on a gigantic scale. It speaks volumes for the liberality of the Muhammadan rulers of India that such a mass of literature should have escaped the ravages of time and bigotry: the Brāhmanas have been fortunate to have saved so much, while the Alexandrian Library perished, and so much of the treasures of Greece and Rome is found wanting.

Beginning with the *Vedas*, our author gives specimens in blank verse of hymns to the great Gods of Nature,† which occupied the thoughts of our Āryan forefathers. Not as yet had the idea of Śiva or Viṣṇu been worked out,—those debauched conceptions were the fruit of a later age. The elements and the dead were the natural objects of primeval worship. Hymns of praise and thanks, rituals to appease and conciliate, were the halting machinery of unassisted men, the first groping of men after God, who spoke to them not by his

* "Great praise is, however, due," says the author, "to Mrs. Manning's valuable compilation *Ancient and Medieval India*, 2 vols.—Ed."

† Hymn to Varuṇa (p. 14); to Indra, to Agni, to Sūrya (*Rig-Veda*, I. 50); to Ushas (pp. 17-20); to Yama from

various hymns in Maṇḍala X. of the *Rig-Veda* (pp. 21, 22); two hymns, one on the creation (*R. V. X. 150*), and the other on the unity of God (*R. V. I. 121*); a modified version of the Paruṣa-sūkta (*R. V. X. 90*); the hymn to Tīro (*Atthavaṇṣa-Veda*, XIX. 53); and the hymn to Night (*R. V. X. 127*).

word, but his works, the uncertain light of natural phenomena. As the world grew older, the everlasting problem of life and death; the riddle of riches and poverty, youth and old age; the toss-up of sickness or health, good or evil luck; the nice questions of so-called virtue and so-reputed vice, forced themselves on the notice of thinking minds, and, as they worked on in unceasing, relentless round, induced that system of introspection which men call philosophy; and about 600 B.C. the great Philosophic Age began to dawn, ushered in by such master-minds as Zoroaster, Confucius, the wise men of Greece, and the wise men of India. In that birth came into existence the six schools of Indian Philosophy (p. 49).

Nothing is more striking, as Professor Williams shows, than the existence of such divergence of opinion in one apparently rigid framework (pp. 53, 61-70). Brahmanism and Rationalism, under the semblance of orthodoxy, advanced hand in hand: new ideas were conceived, expanded, blossomed, and in the case of Buddhism were extinguished forcibly by the secular power: and here the author incidentally notes (p. 5) the singular phenomenon that the Turanian nations have adopted Buddhism, a faith of Aryan parentage, while the Aryan have surrendered themselves to Semitic dogmas.

To the casual reader the chapter on the *Vedas* is full of interest. To it follows an account of the *Brāhmaṇas* and *Upanishads*, and of the systems of philosophy: the account of the Jains (p. 127) and of the *Bhāgavad-gītā* (p. 136) have a strange fascination, and help to keep up the interest after four lectures on the *Smṛiti*, *Sūtra-sūtra*, and law-books, until we reach the epics, and proceed onward to the grand classical age of Sanskrit literature.

Professor Williams enters into the details of the great epics, the *Rāmāyaṇa* (p. 337) and *Mahābhārata* (p. 371), and devotes one chapter to a comparison of them with the Homeric poems (p. 415): he adds a choice selection of their religious and moral sentiments (p. 440), as the best test of the degree of moral perception at which their compilers, and those who hang rapturously on their recitation in the vernacular, had arrived: some of these we may quote in later pages.

We have now reached those portions of the literature which may be called comparatively modern; they consist of—I. the artificial poems (p. 449), II. the dramas (p. 462), III. the *Purāṇas* and *Tantras* (p. 489), IV. the moral poems and fables (p. 505). The former class comprise some noble poems which illustrate both the beauty and the defects of the Sanskrit language and the Hindu authors,—the meaningless play of words, the fanci-

ful conceits, the 'linked sweetness long drawn out,' the idea spun out to the finest thread, the intricate grammatical forms, the exceptionable chain of words. In these particulars no poem in any language can compete as regards singularity, charm of originality, and highly wrought finish with the *Raghavastā* (p. 455), *Meghadūta*, and others. Many a Sanskritist who can read the epics, or the laws of Manu, with facility, will find a deeper study necessary to open the locks of a poem whose every *śloka* presents a separate puzzle: and yet the grand sonorous lines echo through the gallery of time with a rhythmical vibration which can never be forgotten. Even the great Homeric hexameters read tamely by the side of the *Indravajra* lines of Kālidāsa, whose exuberant genius runs riot in the unlimited use of melodious homophones.

The dramas are too well known to require further notice: we pass on to the *Purāṇas*, which are practically the proper *Vedas* of popular Hinduism. They are modern in date, very numerous, and of varying popularity. They are designed to convey the exoteric doctrine of the *Veda* to the lower castes and to women. The compilers of them fell into the pitfall of pretending to teach "nearly every subject of knowledge," "to give the history of the whole universe from the remotest ages, and claim to be the inspired revealers of scientific as well as theological truth;" but in fact they are a cross betwixt the Papal Syllabus and the *Penny Cyclopædia*, and are justly charged with "very questionable omniscience" (p. 490).

We rise from a study of this book with a sense of the great service rendered to the student and the general scholar by the bringing together for the first time in a readily accessible form the *corpus* of "Indian Wisdom." Those only who commenced the study of Sanskrit thirty or forty years ago can fully appreciate the value and assistance of such a volume. At that period no one could say with certainty what were the boundaries of Sanskrit literature. The last thirty years have indeed been of wondrous expansion—a gathering in of a rich Indian harvest into European granaries. French, German, English, Italians, natives of India, Danes, and citizens of the United States have all contributed to the great work; and now in this his latest work Professor Monier Williams gives us a conspectus of the whole subject—a mine of reference, and a *code-memo* for future scholars. It is a real subject of gratification that the English school of Sanskritists still maintains the ancient fame acquired in the heroic age by the grand Hindu triad, Jones, Colebrooke, and H. H. Wilson, to whom the proud title of "*Primi in India*" is cheerfully conceded by all European scholars.

London, June 1875.

J. G.

THE BOOK OF SER MARCO POLO, the Venetian, Concerning the Kingdoms and Marvels of the East. Newly translated and edited, with Notes, Maps, and other Illustrations, by COLONEL HENRY YULE, C.B., late Royal Engineers (Bengal). In 2 vols. 2nd edition, revised; with the addition of new matter and many new illustrations. (London: John Murray, 1875.)

Both to editor and publisher this is one of the most creditable books that have of late been issued by the English press. As a specimen of masterly workmanship, it may well be looked to as the example of its class by those who may engage on similar tasks with this of Colonel Yule's. The first edition appeared little more than four years ago, and was received with so much favour that we are glad to see the editor has been encouraged again to open his stores, and whilst lopping his former work in some few places, it has been only to make partial room for the many interesting additions from a hundred sources that he now lays before his readers,—additions that "have come in up to the last moment",—so that the 17 pages of "Supplementary notes" he has added to the second volume, he tells us, "has had to undergo repeated interpolation after being put in type." The result is an encyclopædia of information and reference respecting Central Asia and China, especially in the Middle Ages, such as is to be found nowhere else.

Marsden's version of Marco Polo, published in 1818, and hitherto the standard English one, was translated from the Italian of Ramusio, printed in 1559; but Ramusio's was itself a translation from Latin copies, which again were derived, probably through Italian versions, from a French original. The old French text, published by the Société de Géographie in 1824, seems to be by far the nearest approach to the original as written down from the dictation of Marco by his fellow-prisoner Rusticiano of Pisa, in Genoa, in the year 1298. Probably derived from this, through a revised copy by the author, are five other French MSS., on three of which, in the Great Paris Library, M. Panthier based his valuable text of 1865. "Having translated this," says Col. Yule,—"not always from the text adopted by Panthier himself, but with the exercise of my own judgment on the various readings which that editor lays before us,—I then compared the translation with the Geographic Text, and transferred from the latter not only all items of real substance that had been omitted, but also all expressions of special interest and character, and occasionally a greater fulness of phraseology where the condensation in Panthier's text seemed to have been carried too far. And finally I introduced between brackets everything peculiar to Ramusio's version that seemed to me to have a just claim to be reckoned

authentic, and that could be so introduced without harshness or mutilation. Many passages from the same source which were of interest in themselves, but failed to meet one or other of these conditions, have been given in the notes." This plan must commend itself as a most judicious one. The Book itself consists of two parts, the first containing the brief but interesting narrative of "the circumstances which led the two older Polos to the Khan's Court, and those of their second journey with Mark, and of their return to Persia through the Indian Seas," and the second consisting of a long series of chapters—232 in the Geographic text, 200 in Panthier's, and 183 in the Crusca Italian—"descriptive of notable sights and products, of curious manners and remarkable events, relating to the different nations and states of Asia, but above all to the Emperor Kublai, his court, wars, and administration."—A series of chapters, near the close, either omitted or much abridged in nearly all the copies, "treats in a verbose and monotonous manner of sundry wars" between different branches of the family of Chenghiz. These chapters, the translator, "though sharing the dislike that every man who uses books must bear to abridgments," has felt "it would be sheer waste and dead-weight to print."

The Commentary is very full and complete, no pains having been spared to clear up every point of interest or difficulty, by extracts from every known source—many of them but little known—and by personal inquiry from people of all countries, and all over the East. Nothing is omitted: the account of the Old Man of the Mountain, for example, is illustrated by an outline of the Ismaili sect, with references to the authorities, down to the trial in the High Court at Bombay in 1866, and a portrait of H. H. Agha Khan Mehelati. The references to Buddha lead to a brief account of his life, and of the old religious romance based upon it—the *History of Barlaam and Josaphat*—illustrated by a woodcut from an old German version of the story printed in 1477, representing 'Śākya Muni as a Saint of the Roman Martyrology.' The illustrations indeed—of which there are about 180—are a most interesting feature of this handsomely got up work: the maps are numerous and specially instructive, and the woodcuts, &c.—many of them new, others very old and quaint, drawn from mediæval sources European, Chinese, Persian, &c.—are all interesting. The notes on the chapters respecting India, Socatra, &c., in the second volume, will be studied by many of our readers with much interest. The Index is full, and a most valuable guide to the very varied stores of information which fill these two weighty volumes.

EIGHT ARABIC AND PERSIAN INSCRIPTIONS FROM AHMADĀBĀD.

BY H. BLOCHMANN, M.A., CALCUTTA MADRASAH.

A SHORT time ago, Mr. Burgess sent me eight very excellent photozincographs from rubbings of Ahmadābād inscriptions, of which I now give readings and translations, together with a few notes.

These inscriptions add somewhat to our knowledge of Gujarātī history; but it would be desirable to have more, and also to obtain a complete set of Gujarātī coins of the Muhammadan period.

Inscriptions I and II belong to mosques built by Ahmad Shāh (I.) of Gujarāt, who is described as the son of Muhammad Shāh and grandson of Muzaffar. Muzaffar appears to have been a converted Hindū; for Muhammadan historians generally call him Muzaffar Tāyik, i.e. Muzaffar of the Tāyik tribe.* It is noticeable that his grandson does not style him 'Shāh'; in fact, only in Inscription V does he appear with this title. Like the founder of the Jaunpūr dynasty, he does not seem to have struck coins. On the other hand, Muhammad Shāh, Ahmad Shāh's father, though styled Shāh, has no place in history; but he is mentioned in inscriptions and on coins.

Ahmad Shāh, or, according to his full name, Nāsīr uddīn Abul Fath Ahmad Shāh, built Ahmadābād near the old village or town of Aśwāl. The foundation took place on 7th Zi Qa'dah 813, or 4th March 1411, when the presence of 'the four pious Gujarātī Ahmads' rendered the undertaking auspicious. According to the legend†, the saint Ahmad Khaṭṭū (so called from the town of Khaṭṭū, near Nāgor) had settled in Gujarāt during the reign of Sulṭān Muzaffar, who held him in great respect. Ahmad Shāh, too, often visited the Shaikh, and on one occasion expressed a desire to see the prophet Khizr (Elias). The Shaikh's prayers and certain ascetic penances performed by Ahmad Shāh brought about the desired meeting, and when the king asked Khizr to tell him something wonderful, the prophet said that in former

times a large town had stood on the banks of the Sābarmatī, where now only jungle grew. The name of the town had been Bādānbād. This town had suddenly disappeared. Ahmad Shāh asked whether he might not build a new town on the spot. Khizr said that he might do so; but the foundations would not be safe unless four persons of the name of Ahmad came together who had never in their life omitted the afternoon prayer ('aṣr). Ahmad Shāh searched throughout the whole of Gujarāt, but found only two Ahmads that fulfilled the condition, viz. one Qāzī Ahmad and one Malik Ahmad. These two the king took to Shaikh Ahmad Khaṭṭū, who then said, 'I am the third.' The king said, 'Then I am the fourth Ahmad.' The town was thus founded. When the walls of the fort had been raised to about a man's height, the foundations unexpectedly gave way at one place. The king and the Shaikh inspected the locality, when a man whose name was Mānik Jogī came forward, and said that the presence of the four Ahmads at the laying of the foundation was not sufficient to secure the permanence of the undertaking: the place where the fort had been commenced was his property, and the fort would not stand without his consent. The difficulty was, however, settled when the king agreed to call a part of Ahmadābād after the name of Mānik Jogī.‡ No other misfortune befell the rising town.

Shaikh Ahmad Khaṭṭū died in 849 A.H., three years after Ahmad Shāh. He lies buried at Sarkhāj, south-west of Ahmadābād, near the right bank of the river.

Inscription III§ belongs to the reign of Qutb uddīn Abul Muzaffar Ahmad Shāh II., often called in histories Qutb Shāh. His full name is now known.

Inscription IV is from Dastūr Khān's Mosque—the same as figured in Fergusson's *Architecture of Ahmadābād*, plates 86, 87. Malik Ghani Dastūr ul-Mulk (i. e. 'Vazīr of the

* Regarding the Tāyik tribe vide Beames's edition of Elliot's *Races of the N. W. P.*, vol. I. pp. 109, 114; Cunningham, *Arch. Reports*, vol. II. p. 8; Tod's *Rājasthān*, vol. I. pp. 163ff. (Msd. ed., p. 34ff.).

† Vide *Āin* translation, I. p. 367, where a biographical note will also be found on Mīr Abū Turīb, whose mausoleum in Ahmadābād is described by Fergusson, *Architecture of Ahmadābād*, p. 62.

‡ Hence the Mānik Burj, or Mānik Bastion, west of Shāh Ahmad's Mosque, where the Bhadr touches the Sābarmatī; vide the plan of Ahmadābād in Fergusson's *Architecture of Ahmadābād*.

§ From 'Hazarī Shāh's' Mosque, near the Kānūj. It is a small building on the plan of the Mapūp of a Jīna temple with double pillars in front. It has every appearance of having been an appropriation of a Śrāvaka fame.—Ed.

kingdom') was a noble of the court of Nâsir-uddin Abul Fath Mahmûd Shâh, who is better known under his nickname of Bigarah (بیکره). I do not know the correct pronunciation of this nickname. Some people pronounce it *biqadh*, 'having conquered two forts', in allusion to the conquest, on the same day, by Mahmûd's armies of Champânîr and Jûnâgadh. But Jahângîr* in his *Memoirs* says that the word is a Gujarâtî term meaning 'having the moustachios turned upwards.' There is no doubt that the latter explanation is correct, and in corroboration I may quote the following passage from Varthema's travels†:—

"The Guzurates are a generation who eat nothing that has blood, and kill nothing that has life. They are neither Moors nor Gentoes, but if they were baptized they would certainly be all saved on account of the many good works which they perform. This excess of goodness has rendered them the prey of Machamuth, the present king, who is of a very different disposition. The beard of this prince is so huge, that his moustachios are tied over his head like a lady's hair, while the rest depended downwards as far as his girdle. He is continually chewing a fruit like a nut wrapt in leaves, and when he squirts the juice upon any one, it is a signal that this person should be put to death, which sentence is executed in half an hour."

The year of the inscription is not clear, but it may be 892 or 890 (A.D. 1497 or 1495).

Inscription V is from Rânî Aṣṇî's (commonly known as *Râṣī Sîprî's*) Mosque, which was built in 1514†, during the fourth year of the reign of Shamsuddin Abul-Nâsir Muzaffar Shâh, whose full name now becomes known. The inscription also mentions another son of Mahmûd Shâh Bigarah, of the name of Abû Bakr Khân. The name shows that the royal family were Sunnis. I do not

know whether the name of the Rânî is Aṣṇî, Iṣṇî, or Uṣṇî.

Inscriptions VI and VII—The former refers to repairs made by Nan Khân Farbat-ul Mulk ('Joy of the kingdom'), son of Chiman, on Ahmad Shâh's Mausoleum‡; and the latter to a Jâmi' Mosque built by the same grandee.

Inscription VIII mentions the full name of Nâsir-uddin Abul-Fath Mahmûd Shâh, son of Latîf Khân. Mr. Thomas, in his '*Chronicles of the Pathan Kings of Delhi*' (p. 352), gives Quṭbuddin as the name of the king; but the coin figured by him does not give that name. We may therefore assume that this inscription gives the correct name.||

In point of penmanship, the first three inscriptions are better than the other five,¶—the first especially is beautifully carved. Like the Bengal and Jaanpûr inscriptions of the same time, they are superior in this respect to Dihlî inscriptions.

The grammatical and orthographical mistakes so common on all Indian inscriptions are also found here, viz. occasionally wrong articles and genders; non-inflexion of the words *abû*, *akhû*, &c.; mistakes in the construction of the Arabic numerals; the interchange of ت and ث, &c.

I.—*Ahmad Shâh's Mosque.*

بني هذا البناء الوقع المسجد الوسيط العبد الراجي
الثاني الملتجئ الى رحمة الله المعبود في المساجد
بالركوع والسجود غير مدعو احد معه ابدأ للولاه تعالى
ان المساجد للبر فلا تدعوا مع الله احدا الوثائق بالله
السلطان احمد شاه بن محمد شاه بن مظفر السلطان
وكان تاريخ بنائه من الهجرة الوابع من شوال سنة سبع
عشر وثمانمائة ||

Translation.

This lofty edifice, the extensive Mosque, was built by the slave who trusts and returns and has recourse to the mercy of God, who is worshipped in Mosques with bows and prostrations,

§ *Architecture of Ahmadâbâd*, p. 47.

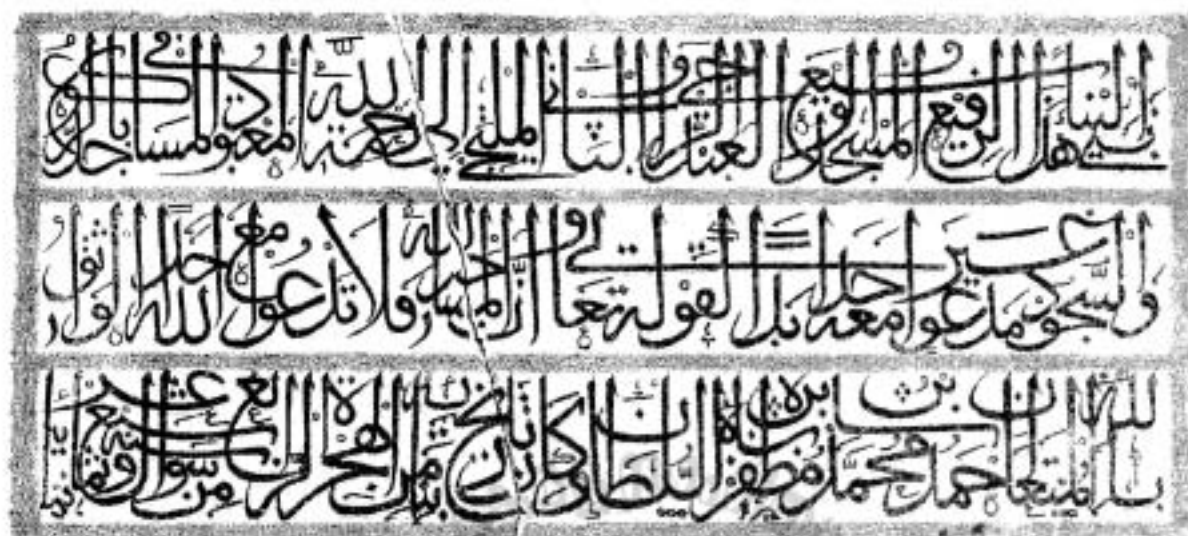
|| In the names of the other Gujarâtî kings given by Mr. Thomas (p. 353,) I find that Bahâdur Shâh (No. 11) is given with two *kasrah's*, which is unusual. The name of Muzaffar Shâh bin Mahmûd (No. 15) cannot be correct.

¶ Some of the inscriptions are chipped in places, and, though carved on marble slabs, all have been again and again whitewashed, until it is very difficult to clean them so as to get perfect rubbings: this is the main cause of the want of sharpness in several of them. No. I. is cracked across.—Ed.

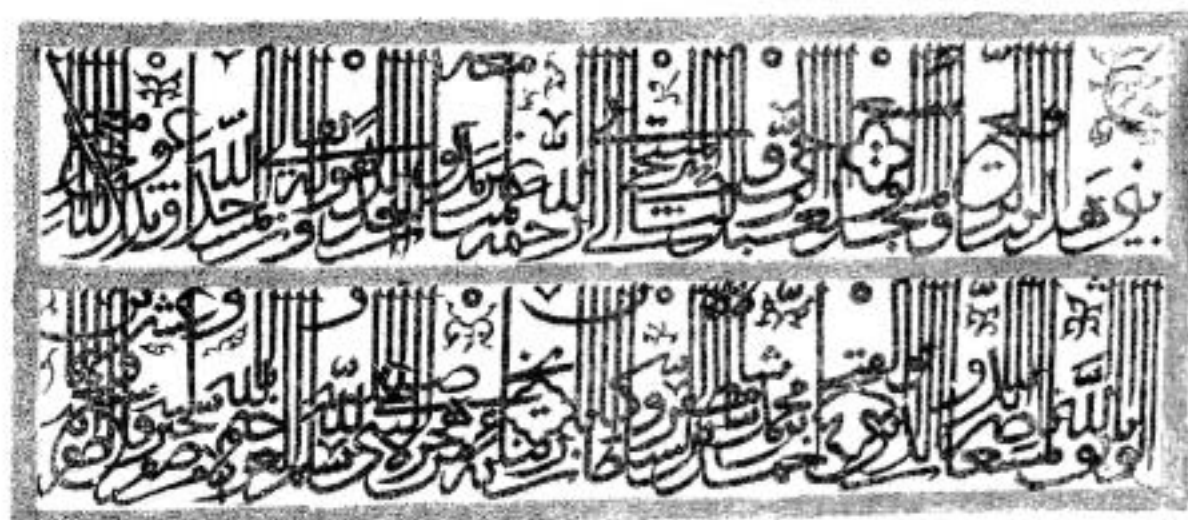
* When Jahângîr was in Ahmadâbâd, of which he has given a lengthy description, he found the streets so dusty, that he wished to change the name of the city to Gardâbâd,—"Dustville." (Elliot's *History of India*, vol. VI. pp. 353, 358).

† Vide Murray, *Historical Account of Discoveries and Travels in Asia*, vol. II. p. 37.

‡ This is an important correction of the date usually ascribed for the erection of this beautiful mosque, the gem of Ahmadâbâd buildings, which, probably on the sole authority of H. G. Briggs (*Cities of Gujarât*, p. 243), is usually said to have been built in A.H. 835, or A.D. 1431-32. Conf. Ferguson's *Architecture of Ahmadâbâd*, pp. 45, 84.—Ed.



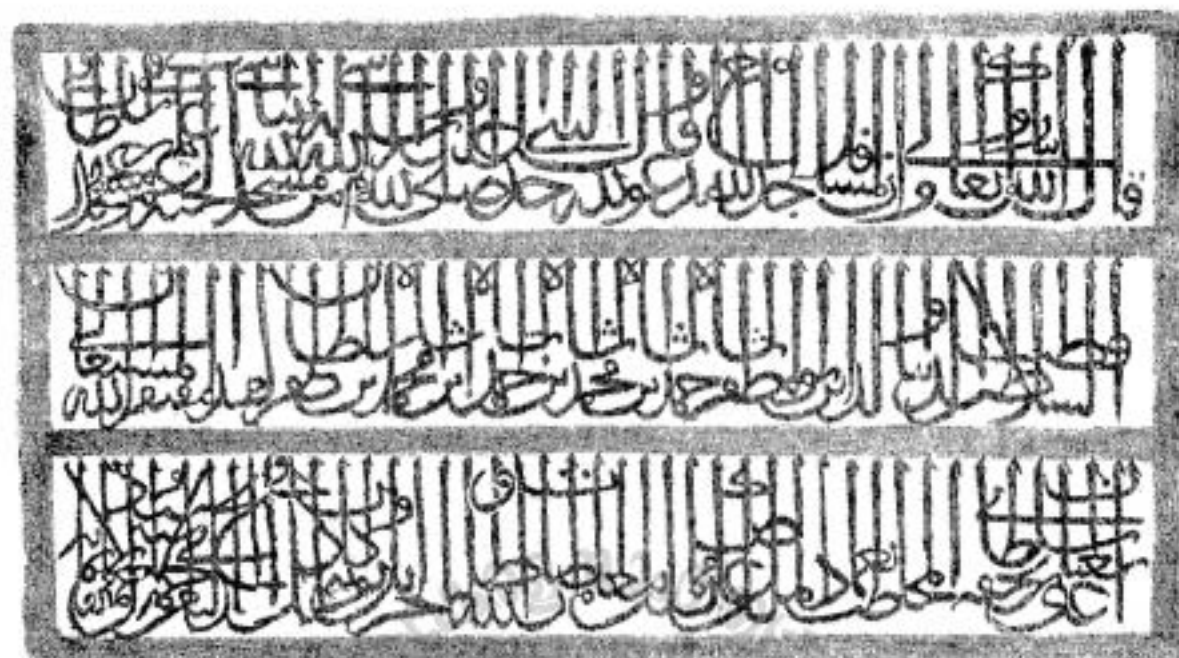
NO. 1. FROM AHMAD SHAH'S MASJID IN THE BHADR. (A.D. 1414).



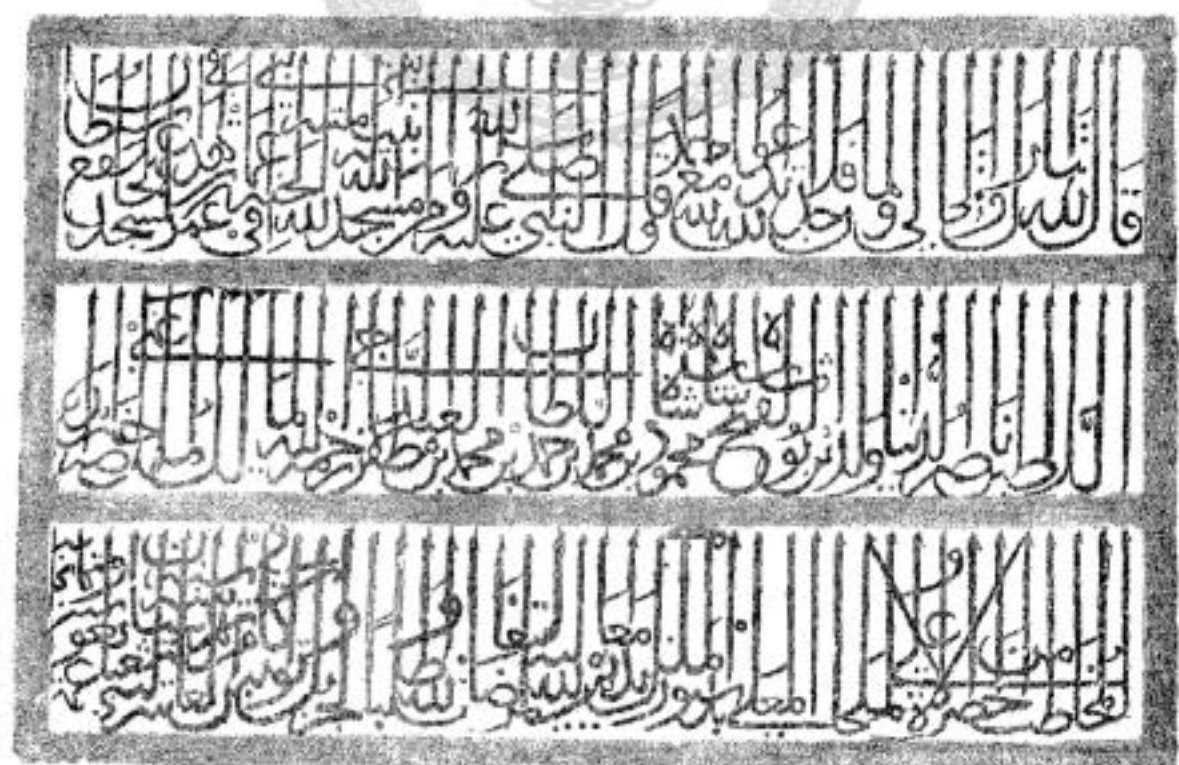
J. Burgess scit.

W. Geiger photo-lith.

NO. 2. FROM AHMAD SHAH'S JAMA MASJID. (A.D. 1424).



No. 3. SHA'BAN'S MOSQUE (A.D. 1452).



J. Burgess fecit.

W. Briggs photo-lith.

No. 4. DASTUR KHAN'S MOSQUE (A.D. CIR. 1486).

who alone is to be worshipped according to the *Qorân* verse* [*Sûr. Ixxii., 18*], "Verily, the Mosques belong to God; worship no one else with Him,"—by the slave who trusts in the helping God, Ahmad Shâh, son of Muhammad Shâh, son of Muzaffar, the king. And the date of its erection is the 4th Shawâl 817 A.H. [17th December, 1414.]

II.—*Ahmad Shâh's Jâmi' Mosque.*

بني هذا البناء الرفيع والمسجد الواسع العبد الراجي
والثاني الملجئ إلى رحمة الله العبدان غير مدعو احد
معه ابدأ لقول الله تعالى وان المساجد لله ولا تدعوا
مع الله احدا الوائق بالله المستعان ناصر الدنيا
والدين ابوالفتح احمد شاه بن محمد شاه بن مظفر
السلطان وكان تاريخ بنائه من هجرة النبي
صلى الله عليه وسلم الفرة من صفر ختم الله
بالخير والظفر سنة سبع وعشرين وثمانماية ||

Translation.

This lofty edifice and extensive Mosque was built by the slave who trusts and returns and has recourse to the mercy of God who is kind, who alone is to be worshipped according to the *Qorân* verse, "Verily, the Mosques belong to God; worship no one else with Him"—(by the slave) who trusts in the helping God, Nâsir uddunyâ waddîn Abul Fath Ahmad Shâh, son of Muhammad Shâh, son of Muzaffar, the king. The date of its erection from the flight of the Prophet (God's blessings on him!) is the first day of Safar (may the month end successfully and victoriously!) of the year 827. [4th January, 1424.]

III.—*Hazârâ Shâh's Mosque.*

قال الله تعالى وان المساجد لله فلا تدعوا مع الله احدا
وقال النبي صلى الله عليه وسلم من بني مسجد الله
بني الله له بيتا في الجنة بني عماره هذا المسجد في عهد
سلطان السلاطين قطب الدنيا والدين ابوالمظفر احمد شاه
بن محمد شاه بن احمد شاه بن محمد شاه بن مظفر السلطان
العبد المفقور الى الله المستعان اعني شعبان ابن تحفه
السلطاني المخاطب بعماد الملك عارض ممالك ابتغاء
لمرضات الله وطلب الجزيل ثوابه وكان ذلك في تاريخ
الثاني من جمادى الاول سنة ست وخسين وثمانماية ||

Translation.

God Almighty says,—“Verily, the Mosques belong to God; worship no one else with him.” And the Prophet (God's blessings on him!) says,—“He who builds a Mosque for God, will have a house built for him by God in Paradise.” The edifice of this Mosque was built during the reign of the king of kings, Qutb uddunyâ waddîn Abul Muzaffar Ahmad Shâh, son of Muhammad Shâh, son of Ahmad Shâh, son of Muhammad Shâh, son of Muzaffar, the king, by the slave who has need of God the helper—I mean Sha'bân, son of Tuhfah, the royal, who has the title of 'Imâd ul-Mulk, the Lord Chamberlain, from a desire to obtain the favour of God and to get his great reward. This took place on the 2nd Jumâda I. 836. [21st May, 1452.]

IV.—*Dastâr Khân's Mosque.*

قال الله تبارك وتعالى وان المساجد لله فلا تدعوا
مع الله احدا وقال النبي صلى الله عليه وسلم من
بني مسجدا لله بني الله له بيتا مثل في الجنة بني
عماره هذا المسجد الجامع في عهد سلطان السلاطين
ناصر الدنيا والدين ابوالفتح محمود شاه بن محمد
شاه بن احمد شاه بن محمد شاه بن مظفر السلطان
العبد الراجي بروحمت الله المالك الملك غني خالص
زاد المخاطب من حضرت الاعلى والمخاطب المعلى
بدستور الملك يدوم الله معاليم ابتغاء لمرضات الله
و طلبا لجزيل ثوابه وكان في العاشر من شهر
شعبان سنة (illegible) ثمانماية ||

Translation.

God who is blessed and great, has said, “Verily the Mosques belong to God; worship no one with him.” And the Prophet (God's blessings on him!) has said, “He who builds a mosque for God, will have a house like it built by God for him in Paradise.” The edifice of this Jâmi' Mosque was built during the reign of the king of kings Nâsir uddunyâ waddîn Abul Fath Mahmûd Shâh, son of Muhammad Shâh, son of Ahmad Shâh, son of Muhammad Shâh, son of Muzaffar, the king, by the slave who hopes to obtain the mercy of God, the Mâlik Malik Ghani Khâṣah-zâd, who has received from his

* Quotations from the *Qorân* are introduced by *qâla allâhu ta'âlâ*, 'God says'; quotations from the *Hadis* by *qâla al-nabî*, 'the Prophet says.'

august Majesty and the exalted refuge (of the people) the title of *Dastûrul-mulk* (may God continue him in his exalted position!), in order to obtain the mercy of God and to secure his great reward. This was on the 10th *Shahân* of the year* 8**.

V.—*Rânî Asmî's Mosque.*

قال الله تبارك وتعالى وان العاجد لله فلا تدعوا
مع الله احدا وقال الذبي صلى الله عليه وسلم من بنى
مسجدا لله تعالى بنى الله له قسرا في الجنة بنى المسجد
في عصر السلطان الاعظم المولى بنائيد الرحمن شمس
الدنيا والدين ابوالنصر مظفر شاه بن محمود شاه بن
محمود شاه بن احمد شاه بن محمود شاه بن مظفر
شاه السلطان خلد الله ملكه بائنة المسجد المذكور والدة
ابى بكر خان بن محمود شاه سلطان السمات برانى
انني من شهر سنة شمسية اربع سنة العشرين و
تسعماية ||

Translation.

God who is blessed and high has said, "Verily the Mosques," &c. [as above]. And the Prophet has said, "He who builds a Mosque for God Almighty, will have a castle built for him by God in Paradise." This Mosque was built during the reign of the great king, who is assisted by the aid of the All-Merciful, *Shams uddunyâ waddîn Abul-naẓr Muzaffar Shâh*, son of *Mahmûd Shâh*, son of *Muhammad Shâh*, son of *Ahmad Shâh*, son of *Muhammad Shâh*, son of *Muzaffar Shâh*, the king,—may God perpetuate his kingdom! The builder of this Mosque is the mother of *Abû Bakr Khân*, son of *Mahmûd Sulṭân*, who is called *Rânî Asmî*. During the fourth solar [regnal] year, in 920. [A.D. 1514.]

VI.—*Tomb of Ahmad Shâh.*

روضه عالي احمد شاه سلطان كز علو
جفت گشته كذب او با سرتاق سما
عهده داران گرچه بودندش بسی و برده اند
سعيها اندر مرمت كردن او دائما
ليک هرگز هيچ كس اورا بدین رونق نساخت
همچو ذات اكمل آن صاحب عز و علا

محسن اهل زمانه فرحت الملک آنک او
هست د بندار و خدا ترس و سخی و با وفا
در زمان تاریخ سال عهده اش از من حق
گفت یحیی فرحت ملک آمد از وی سالها

سنة اربع و اربعين و تسعمائة * یادگار احمد چچو

Translation.

1. [This is] the lofty Mausoleum of *Ahmad Shâh*, the king, the dome of which, on account of its loftiness, matches the vault of the heaven.
2. Though he† had many officers, and though they always exerted themselves to repair it,
3. No one has hitherto done so in so splendid a manner as the perfect mind of that respected and exalted man,
4. The benefactor of the present generation, *Farhat ul-Mulk*, who is pious, God-fearing, liberal, and faithful.
5. The chronogram of his office tenure has been expressed, with God's help, by (the poet) *Yahyâ* in the words—"Farhat i Mulk, these letters give the year." A.H. 944 [A.D. 1537-38]. The memorial is executed by *Ahmad Chhajjû*.

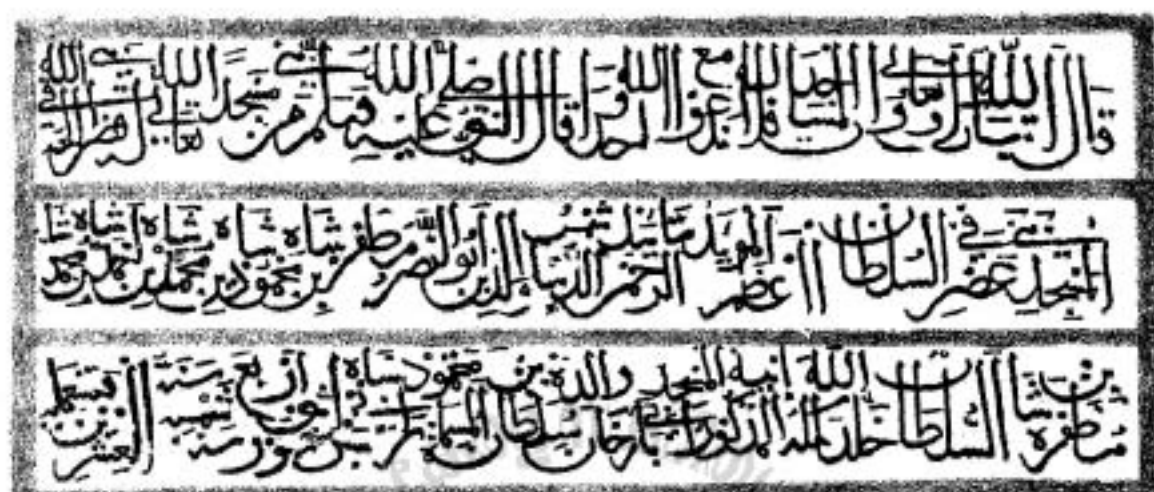
VII.—*Shâh Shâh Sayyid's Masjid.*

یا الله قطعه در تاریخ بقاء مسجد جامع یا الله
ملک الشرق ملک توخان چیمه الخطاب
بفرحت الملک

مسجده با صفا و پرانوار
آنکه نورش با آسمان برود
بیت معمور و سقف مرفوعش
گر بخواند لسان غیب مزود
هست در عز همچو بیت عتیق
خالی از عبادان بدان نبود
چاه او عین زمزم چو منا
جنب او سوق با رواج بود
شد بنایش بعد آنکه شهبش
تا بکوسه هشتمین برسد
شاه محمود ابن شاه لطیف
که سلاطین را پناه دهد
بانش توخان ابن چیمه کو
فرحت الملک شد ز لطف احد

* The year may be 899 or 892 A.H., which would be A.D. 1485 or 1487.

† Or it (sc. the Mausoleum). The metre is long ramaal.



NO. 5. FROM RANI ASNI'S MOSQUE. (A.D. 1514).



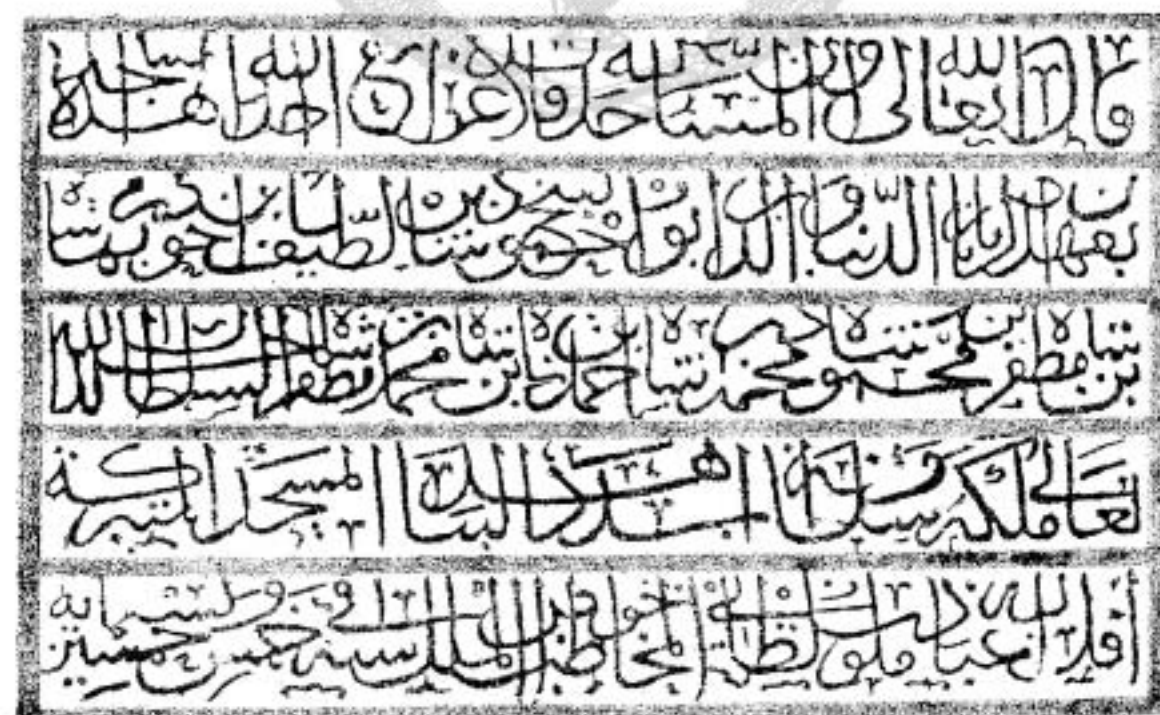
J. Burgess fecit.

W. Griggs photo-lith.

NO. 6. FROM AHMAD SHAH'S TOMB (A.D. 1537).



NO. 7. SHAHUB SAYYID'S MASJID. (A.D. 1538).



J. Burgess fecit.

W. Griggs photo-lith.

NO. 8. HANSA SALAT'S DHALGAWARI MASJID. (A.D. 1548).

بندۂ تاریخ این بناء قبول
از سر صدق خواستم ز خرد
گفت فی الحال رو بگو یحیی
قد بنا خالصا لوجه احد
نه صد و چهل و پنج مجموع بود
گر در آری حروف وی بعد

Translation.

O God! A chronogram on the erection of the Jâmî Mosque by the Malik ushsharq ['Chief of the East'] Nau Khân, son of Chîman, who has the title of Farhat ul Mulk. O God!

1. (This is) a Mosque shining and beaming forth, whose rays go up to heaven.

2. If the tongue of the angel calls it 'the raised house' and 'the elevated dome,' it is but proper;*

3. For in honour it is like 'the old house;' may it never be inside empty of worshippers!

4. Its well is like the Zamzam Well; and, like in Minâ,† at the side of it, is a well-attended bazar.

5. The building was erected during the reign of him whose kingdom reaches the eighth throne,

6. Shâh Mahmûd, son of Shâh Latîf, who gives an asylum to other kings.

7. Its builder is Nau Khân, son of Chîman, who through the grace of God became Farhat ul-Mulk.

8. I sincerely asked Genius for the chronogram of this building,

9. And he replied at once, "Go, Yahyâ, and say, 'He built† it from pure motives, for the sake of God.'"

10. This gives together 945, if you count up the value of the letters (A.D. 1538).

VIII.—*Hamsah Saldt's Dhalgawâri Mosque.*§

قال الله تعالى وان المساجد لله فلا تدعوا مع
المر احدا [بنی] هذه المسجد بعد الزمان ناصر
الدنيا والدين ابوالفتح محمود شاه بن لطيف خان
اخو بهادر شاه بن مظفر شاه بن محمود شاه بن محمد
شاه بن احمد شاه بن محمد شاه بن مظفر السلطان
خلد الله تعالى ملكه وسلطانه سدد هذا الينا المسجد
المعبركة اقل عباد الله ملو سلطاني الخطاب
بخواص الملك في سنة خمس وخمسين وتسعمائة ||

Translation.

God Almighty says, "Verily the Mosques," &c., [as above]. This Mosque was built during the time of the reign of Nasir uddunyâ waddîn Abul Fath Mahmûd Shâh, son of Latîf Khân, the brother of Bahâdur Shâh, son of Muzaffar Shâh, son of Mahmûd Shâh, son of Muhammad Shâh, son of Ahmad Shâh, son of Muhammad Shâh, son of Muzaffar, the king,—may God Almighty continue his kingdom and his rule! The edifice of this blessed Mosque was strengthened by the meanest of God's slaves, Mallû the royal, who has the title of Khawâs ul-Mulk, in 955. [A.D. 1548.]

BIOGRAPHY OF JELLÂL-AL-DIN RÛMÎ.

BY E. REHATSEK, M.C.E., Hon. Mem. B. Br. R. As. Soc.

The prince of Çufî poets, Mullânâ Jellâl-al-din Muhammad ul-Balkhîr-Rûmî, was born at Balkh on the 6th of the month Rabi' I. A.H. 604 (1st October A.D. 1207). His principal work is the *Meşnevî*, which consists of six *daftars* or volumes, and treats on an extraordinary variety of subjects, stories, fables,

parables, legends, and Korân-texts, all permeated by the spirit of the Çufî doctrines; and second to it is his *Divân*, a collection of lyrical poems,—both known from the banks of the Ganges to the shores of the Bosphorus. This poet, the founder of the order of whirling dervishes, who have numerous convents and endowed establish-

* *Lisân i ghaib*, pr. 'the tongue of the unseen world.' This is also the epithet of the poet Hâfiz. 'The raised house' is the Ka'bah in Makkah; and 'the elevated dome' is the heavenly vault. 'The old house,' the same as the Ka'bah. The metre of the passage is *Kahfî*.

† The construction is forced: *chu mind* is either an adjective to Zamzam (the well near the Ka'bah), or the engraver has left out a *wâw*, after Zamzam. Minâ is a quarter in Makkah where a *bâsk* is held.

‡ The engraver has wrongly spelt *بنی* instead of *بنی*. The latter form is required to make up 945. The whole poem is inferior, and in the last line we have to scan *chîh-çûpan*, and in the sixth distich a foot *mustafîlun* occurs for *ma'fîlun*.

§ This is merely a wall with *mîhrâba*, and having in front a tiled roof supported on wooden pillars.—Ed.

ments in Turkey, spent the greater portion of his life in that country, and is therefore called *Rûmî*, the Turk; but, according to the *Nafhât-ul-us* of Jâmi, his visions began at a very early age in his own country. When he was five years old he had manifestations from the invisible world, such as sights of angels, of genii, and of men within the domes of glory. It is stated in a record in the handwriting of Mullânâ Behâ-al-din Vulud, that when Jellâl-al-din Muhammad, on a certain Friday when six years of age, was playing with some other little boys on the flat house-tops of Balkh, one of the little fellows suggested that they should jump over from one house-top to another; Jellâl-al-din replied that as such movements are peculiar to dogs, cats, and other animals, it would be a pity that human beings should imitate them, but that, if they felt any power in their souls, they ought to fly *heavenwards* together with him. That moment he disappeared from the sight of his playmates, who became sorry and raised a shout of lamentation, whereupon he returned after a short while, but with the hue of his countenance changed and his eyes altered, and said, "Whilst conversing with you, I saw a company of persons dressed in green raiment, who took me up and showed me the miracles of the upper world; but when your cries and wailings ascended they again deposited me here." It is said that at that age he partook of food only once in three or four days.

It is said that when Jellâl-al-din emigrated from Balkh he met Sheikh Farid-al-din A'ttâr at Nishâpûr, who was at that time well stricken in years, and who presented him with his *Esâr-admah*, or "book of mysteries," which he ever afterwards carried about his person; he also imitated his doctrines, as it is said—

گرد عطار گشت مولانا
شربت از دست شمس بود نوش

"Mullânâ on A'ttâr attended,

From Shams' hands the drink was all nectar."
By Shams his spiritual teacher, Shams Tabrizi, is meant. Elsewhere we read—

عطار روح بود و سنائی دو چشم او
ما از پنی سنائی و عطار آمدیم

"A'ttâr was soul, Sanâi his two eyes;
We came after Sanâi and A'ttâr."

On being told that a certain man had said he

was at his service "with heart and life," he replied, "Hush! Among men this lie finds credit," and asked, "Whence have you obtained your heart and life, that you can place them at the service of men?" He was nevertheless in the habit of saying, "I am not that body which appears to the *A'dsheks* (lovers of God), but the pleasure and gladness produced in the hearts of *Murids* (disciples) by my words. Allah! Allah! when you obtain that gladness, and taste that joy, consider it happiness, and give thanks; that is me!" Hisâm-al-din was merely his amanuensis, but from several flattering references to him in the *Mesnavi* he might be wrongly considered to have occupied a far higher position. To him he said, "It is necessary to sit knee to knee with the *Avliâ* (pl. of *Veli*, saint) of God, because such proximity bears momentous consequences":—

یکی لحظه ازو دوری نشاید
که از دوری خرابیها فزاید
بهر حالی که باشی پیش او باش
که از نزدیک بودن مهر زاید

Hisâm-al-din was no doubt a faithful amanuensis and disciple, but on some occasions a little admonition might have been judicious; on the death of his wife he could not be induced for a long time to attend to his duty, and the poet remonstrated:—

"One moment to be absent from him is not good,

For separation will increase mishaps.

No matter what your state; attend on him,

Because proximity will love augment."

He said that although a bird flying up from the earth cannot reach heaven, it nevertheless gains the advantage of being further from the net; thus a man who becomes a dervish, though he cannot attain perfection, is distinguished above the common crowd of men, and is delivered from the troubles of the world.

A worldly fellow once excused himself to him for his remissness in visiting him, but Jellâl-al-din replied, "There is no need of any excuses, because I am as thankful for your not coming as others are for your coming."

Seeing one of his companions in a state of melancholy, he said, "All sadness arises from too great attachment to this world; as soon as you are freed from it and consider yourself a stranger therein, you will perceive, from every-

thing you behold or taste, that it cannot abide with you, and that you must go to another place: therefore you will no longer feel any anxiety."

He was also in the habit of saying that he is a superior man who does not grieve on being affronted, and he a generous man who gives no pain to one deserving to be affronted. Mullānā Sirāj-al-din Kūnavi was a great man of the period, but not on good terms with Jellāl-al-din, and when it was reported to him that the latter had on a certain occasion said, "I agree with all the seventy-three sects of the Muhammadan religion," he determined to get the Mullā insulted. Accordingly he sent one of his followers, who was a learned man, to ask the Mullā in a large company whether he had really uttered the above sentiment, and in case of receiving an affirmative reply, to affront him with bad language; but to all his taunts the Mullā only smiled and replied, "I agree also with all you have said," whereupon the man returned ashamed. Sheikh Rakn-al-din 'Allā al-doulah stated that he had been much pleased with this meek answer.

He daily asked his servant, "Is there anything in the house to-day?" and on receiving a negative reply he became exhilarated and thankful, saying, "Praise be to God, this day our house is like that of the prophet!" If the servant said, "Whatever we require is at hand in the kitchen," he was displeased and said, "The smell of Pharaoh is rising from this house." He seldom or never used wax-lights in his house, and was contented with oil-lamps, saying, "Those are for kings, and these for devotees (*qalālek*)."

On a certain occasion a company, in which also Sheikh Qadr-al-din Kūnavi was present, requested the Mullā to officiate as Emām (leader of the prayers), but he replied, "We are Abdāls, we sit down or get up wherever we happen to be; those endowed with Qafism and dignity are worthy to be Emāms," and pointing to Sheikh Qadr-al-din as one of these, he continued, "Whoever prays after a pious Emām is just as if he prayed after the prophet."

One day the Mullā being present at a devotional exercise, it occurred to a dervish to ask him what *Fakr** is, whereupon the Mullā recited the following quatrain:—

"Fakr is essence, all else accident;
Fakr is health, all else disease.
This world is all deceit and fraud,
Fakr is of the next a mystery."

It has been mentioned above that the Mullā was a disciple of Farid-al-din A'ttār; him he recollected even during his last illness, when he said to his companions, "Be not afflicted at my going, because the victorious light will fifty years hence radiate from the spirit of Sheikh Farid-al-din A'ttār. Remember me in whatever state you are, that I may aid you, in whatever garment I am." He also said, "Do not associate with any persons except such as are of your own kind, because on this subject my lord Shams-al-din Tabrizi (may God sanctify his secret!) has said to me that the sign of a disciple (*murīd*) who has found acceptance is that he never associates with strangers, and that when he suddenly falls into their company he feels ill at ease, like a hypocrite in a mosque, or a little child in a school. On his death-bed he also said to his companions, "In this world I have but two connections—the one with my body, and the other with you; this latter connection will not be severed even after I shall, by the favour of God, become separated and isolated from this world." On the same occasion Sheikh Qadr-al-din also paid him a visit and said, "May God restore you to health quickly!" But the Mullā replied, "Let my restoration to health consist in the removal of the only remaining garment which yet separates the lover from his beloved. Are you not willing that light should be joined to light?"

من شدم عربان زن او از خیال
میخوام در نهایت الوصال

"Denuded of body am I, and *He* of unreality.
I roam and verge to bounds of union."

The last injunction of the Mullā to his companions was, "I recommend you to fear God secretly and openly, to be frugal in your eating, to sleep little, and to speak little. To abandon everything sinful, to fast and to pray much. To renounce every kind of lust for ever, and to bear insults from everybody. Do not keep up any intercourse with fools and vulgar persons, but cultivate the society of men who are pious and noble. The best men are those who are useful

* Poverty in a religious sense, and he who makes a profession of it is a Fakir.

to the human race, and the best words are those which are the fewest and the most instructive."

On being asked to appoint a worthy successor, he uttered the name of Chelebi Hisâm-al-din; the question being thrice repeated, he gave the fourth time the same reply. Being questioned concerning his son Sultân Vâlud, he replied, "He is a hero, there is no necessity for any injunction about him." Then Chelebi Hisâm-al-din asked the Mullâ whom he wished to pray over his corpse at the burial, and he said, "Sheikh Çadr-al-din." He expired at sunset on the 5th of the month Jamâdi II. A. H. 672 (18th December A.D. 1273), at the age of 68 years according to the Muhammadan, or 66 according to the Christian reckoning, at Koniah, i.e. Iconium, in Asia Minor, where he had spent the greater portion of his life, and from its being in the Turkish dominions he obtained the surname of Râmi.

The above Sultân Vâlud was also a poet, and died at Koniah, A. H. 712 (1312). He is called Behâ-al-din, of the same name with Jellâl-al-din's father, who, when our poet was yet a boy, being displeased with the government of Khovarizmshâh, determined to emigrate for ever from the district of Balkh, under the pretence of going on a pilgrimage to Mekkah. Accordingly he departed with this son and went first to Nishapûr, where they made the acquaintance of Sheikh Farid-al-din A't-târ, who had gathered around him many disciples, and who discovered the precocious talents of the boy, presenting him with the *Esâr-ânuvâh* and uttering the prediction:—

گفت زودا کاین پسر غوغا کند
آتش اندر سرخنه جانان کند

"How quick, he said, will this unruly lad
Throw burning fire on anxious souls!"

Both father and son continued their travels in the company of a valuable guide and spiritual teacher, Sayyid Tarmad, whose sobriquet was Burhân; with him they visited the holy shrines of Mekkah and Jerusalem. They had not completed one half of their intended tour, however, when he took leave and advised them to settle in Turkey. Accordingly Behâ-al-din took his son Jellâl-al-din to Koniah, where they established themselves and ceased their wanderings. At that time 'Allâ-al-din, the Seljukide, governed the country; he was so pleased with

the company of Behâ-al-din that he became his disciple; when his father died Jellâl-al-din took his place, but he soon got tired of worldly honours, and, abandoning his position, dedicated himself wholly to spiritual life:—

لیک نامد فضل و تدریش پسند
مرغ طبعش داشت پروازی بلند
مز و جاهش در نظر پیوده بود
جذبۀ غیبی دلش ربوده بود

"But schools and honours pleased him not;
His nature's aspirations were more high,
His pomp and glory seemed but folly to himself,—

Attraction of the spirit-world held his heart."

He sought consolation in the society of kindred spirits, the chief of whom were Shams-al-din Tabrizi—whose name appears at the end of almost every ode of his *Divân* in token of affection, because Jallâl-al-din himself acknowledged him as his spiritual guide—and Hisâm-al-din.

Shams-al-din Tabrizi, whose full name is Mullânâ Shams-al-din 'Ali Ben Mâlak Dâd Tabrizi, appears to have been a restless character and an innovator. He travelled about much and made many enemies. When Shams-al-din arrived at Koniah for the first time, he paid a visit to Jallâl-al-din, who happened to be sitting near a tank with several books near him; he asked what they were, and on being told that they were called *Kyl wa Kâl*, he said, "What have you to do with them?" and threw them all into the water. The Mullâ exclaimed with a sigh, "O Dervish, what have you done? Some of these were my father's compositions, which cannot be replaced!" Hereupon Shams-al-din put his hand into the water and pulled out all the books, one after the other; and lo, not one of them was wet. Jellâl-al-din was much astonished, but Shams-al-din rejoined, "This is joy and ecstasy: what do you know of these spiritual matters?" And their intimacy began from that day.

Shams-al-din was constantly roaming about. He wore a robe of coarse black cloth, and took lodgings in the caravanserai at whatever place he happened to arrive. He came to Koniah A. H. 642 (A.D. 1244), but could not remain there on that occasion longer than one year, as an attempt was made on his life. At that time Jellâl-al-din Rami saw his friend for the

last time, and was so grieved at the separation that he withdrew himself entirely from the world, became a dervish, and founded the order of dervishes called after his name, and at present still well known in the Turkish empire.

When Shams-al-din arrived in his travels at Konia, in A.H. 642, he took lodgings in the quarter of the confectioners. One day Jellâl-al-din, who was engaged in teaching various sciences, happened to pass, with a company of learned men from the college, through the quarter of the confectioners. On that occasion Mullâna Shams-al-din sallied out from his lodgings, and taking hold of the bridle of Jellâl-al-din's mule asked him whether Bâizid (a celebrated saint) or Muhammad was the greater? Jellâl-al-din said, "It seemed that on account of that terrible question the seven heavens had fallen asunder and had been precipitated upon the earth; a large fire appeared to issue from my bowels and to envelop my brains, the smoke whereof ascended to the throne of God, and I replied, 'As Muhammad is the greatest of men, what can Bâizid be?' He rejoined, 'What do Muhammad's words, "*We have not known thee as we ought,*" imply? whilst Bâizid says, "*O God, how high is my position! I am the king of kings!*"' I replied:—"Bâizid's thirst was quenched by one drop, and he boasted of satisfaction, because the vessel of his intellect was filled thereby. That light was as much as the little window of his house could admit, whilst Muhammad was subject to a great dropsy and thirst,—he was daily praying for closer intimacy." At these words Mullâna Shams-al-din gave a shout and fell down senseless. Jellâl-al-din alighted from his mule, and ordered his disciples to carry him to the college. He placed the head of Shams-al-din on his own knees, took him by the hand, and they departed together. During three months they lived in retirement, engaged in fasting and prayer; they did not come out once, and no one ventured to disturb their privacy.

According to the *Nafhât-ul-aws*, in which the flight of Shams-al-din from Konia is represented in a somewhat supernatural way, the year in which it took place is given as A.H. 645, and not A.H. 643 as stated above. In the *Nafhât-ul-aws* it is related that one night when Jellâl-al-din and Shams-al-din were sitting together in retirement, a man from without arrived and beckoned to the latter. The Sheikh got up

immediately and said to Jellâl-al-din, "They are calling me in order to kill me." Jellâl-al-din waited long in vain for his return; seven men had lain in ambush expecting him with drawn swords, with which they attacked him, but he uttered such a shout that all of them fainted away and fell to the ground. One of these men was Behâ-al-din, or as in the lithographed copy 'Allâ-al-din Muhammad, the son of Jellâl-al-din. When these seven men recovered their senses, they perceived nothing but one drop of blood, and from that day to this nothing more transpired concerning that prince of the invisible world.

The real cause of the attempt to assassinate Shams-al-din, and of his flight in consequence thereof, must probably be sought in his open disbelief in Islâm, which Jellâl-al-din was always cunning enough to disguise tolerably well in his own utterances and writings. He, moreover, so monopolized the society of Jellâl-al-din that the disciples of the latter, together with his son, were determined to murder Shams-al-din. It is plain enough, from the last page of the *Meṣnawî*, that the above conjecture is true, as will appear from the following:—

مدتی با یار در خلوت نشست
بر رخ اغیار کلی در بر بست
از شراب وصل برخوردار شد
محموم خلوتسرای یار شد
نومردان در قفان و در خروش
که گنجا بود این کدائی زنده پوش
وز گنجا آورد این مکر و دغل
که بزدره بر چنین صدری اجل
اینها اسلام شد خوار و تباہ
قبه اسلام شد کمره زراہ
نیست این رهزن جز از اهل ضلال
خون او بالله حلاکت و حلال

"Some time he with his friend retired sat,
All alien spirits quite shut out,
Enjoying the pure draught of union.
He was the confidant of his good friend;
His pupils did lament and grumble,
'Whence came this ragged mendicant?
Whence brought he all this fraud and roguery.
To isolate so quickly our great Chief?
O God! Now Islâm is despised, destroyed,
The dome of Islâm is now led astray!
This robber is none but a heretic,
By God! his blood is free and free!"

It may be seen that in these verses the 'great Chief' and the 'dome of Islām' is Jellāl-al-din Rūmī, whilst the ragged mendicant and heretic robber is Shams-al-din.

Jellāl-al-din Rūmī's successor, Chelebi Hisām-al-din, whose full name is Sheikh Hisām-al-din Hasan Ben Muhammad Ben Alhasan Ben Akhi Turk. Becoming the successor of a *Pir* or *Sheikh*, i.e. spiritual guide, implies also the acceptance of all his duties and the allegiance of his pupils; and if the *Pir* was a man of great authority, learning, &c. his successor is also expected to be one. It appears that Hisām-al-din got tired of the many *Ghazals* composed by his teacher Jellāl-al-din, and requested him to write a connected and large poem; hereupon the latter pulled out a piece of paper from his turban containing the first twenty-eight distichs of his *Meṣnāvī*, beginning with the words—

بشنو از نی چون حکایت میکند
وز جدائیها شکایت میکند

"Hear how you reed in sadly pleasing tales
Departed bliss and present woe bewails!"
and ending with the words—

پس سخن گوئای باید و السلام

"Here pause my song, and thou rain world,
farewell."^{*}

Jellāl-al-din said, "Before you ever thought of it, the idea of composing a work of this kind had been instilled into my heart from on high." The last piece in the *Meṣnāvī* itself contains an account of the manner in which this celebrated work was commenced, and brought to an end by Hisām-al-din, who wrote down every word of it as it fell from the lips of his master. Sometimes Jellāl-al-din was so full of his subject that from the beginning of the night till the next morning dawned he dictated to Hisām-al-din, who was in the habit of again reading in a loud voice to the Mullā all he had written. When the first volume was completed the wife of Chelebi Hisām-al-din died, and the work was interrupted, as alluded to in the first distich of the second volume:—

مدتی این مثنوی تاخیر شد
مهلتی بابت تاخون شیز شد

"Delayed was this *Meṣnāvī* for a time.

Respite was needed blood to milk to change."

After that no interruption of any length appears to have taken place, till the whole work was brought to a termination. That Hisām-al-din must have been an enthusiastic admirer of this book appears from the following words he uttered:—"When the *Meṣnāvī* is being read aloud, all who are present get drowned in its light, and I behold a company of spirits from the invisible world who cut off with their swords the roots and branches of the faith of all those who do not listen with complete sincerity, and gradually drag them into hell-fire." But Jellāl-al-din replied:—

"Of verses mine the foes you see
Headlong dragged to flames of fire.
Hisām-al-din, saw you their state?
Their acts has God revealed to you?"

The above words of Hisām-al-din imply that as apparently many sentiments contrary to the strict laws of Islām are uttered,—unless listened to with great and sincere attention, the hearing of the *Meṣnāvī* will lead to infidelity, and consequently to eternal perdition; whilst the answer of his master is conceived in that tolerant spirit which permeates the whole *Meṣnāvī*, and which ventures to condemn no one rashly.

No doubt the *Meṣnāvī* contains also many strictly orthodox and even bigoted pieces; it must, however, be allowed that there are many which can never meet with the approval of strict Musalmāns of any sect. Such a piece is "Moses and the Herdsman" (*Ind. Ant.* vol. III. p. 90, March 1874), at the end of which the author even disclaims to be a religious guide, and openly avows that the religion of love is the only true one:—

تو ز سر مستان قلا وزی مچو
جامه چاکانرا چه فرمای رفو
مات عشق از همه دینها جداست
عاشقانرا مذهب و مات خداست

"You must not guidance seek from the
inebriate;

Who rend their clothes, can they be asked to
mend?

From all religions differs love's belief;

The lovers' sects and rites are God alone.†

* This piece was translated by Sir W. Jones; but since his time nothing further has been attempted.

† Though fully aware of my numerous imperfections both

as an English and a Persian scholar, I have during the last two years given selections from this great poet, who has not yet met among Europeans with the attention and study

ON THE AGE AND COUNTRY OF BIDYÂPATI.

BY JOHN BEAMES, B.C.S.

It has been usual to speak of this poet as the earliest writer of Bengal, and, as his language is decidedly Hindi in type, the opinion has been held by myself and others that the Bengali language had at that time not fully developed itself out of Hindi.

This view is very distasteful to Bengalis, who are proud of their language, and wish to vindicate for it an independent origin from some local form of Prakrit. They have apparently set to work to search out the age and country of Bidyâpati, so as to show whether he was really a Bengali or not.

A very able article has appeared on this subject in the last number of that excellent Bengali magazine the *Banga Darśana* (No. 2, pt. IV. for Jyôishtho 1282, say June 1875). It leaves something to be desired in the shape of clearer indication of the authorities on which the statements are founded, and there are some points on which I still feel unsatisfied, but the main conclusions are, I think, unassailable.

I proceed to give the substance of the argument, and the conclusions arrived at, with my own comments.

In an article on Bidyâpati in the *Indian Antiquary*, vol. II. p. 37, I described his language as "extremely Eastern Hindi," and on p. 40 as "the vernacular of Upper Bengal." In the same series of articles, at p. 7 of vol. II., I wrote of it as "more properly old Maithila than Bengali." These three expressions are three different ways of stating the same fact, and my opinion was arrived at from an examination of the language rather than from historical or other considerations. Though I thus anticipated the writer in the *Banga Darśana*, yet it is none the less gratifying to me to find that the conclusion to which I was led by purely linguistic reasons has now been confirmed by actual documentary evidence.

One point, however, I was wrong about, and must now abandon. From the expression in *Padakalpataru*, 1317, "pāṇcha Gauṛeś-

vara," I and the paṇḍits whom I consulted were led to suppose that the poet resided at Nadiyā. The interpretation thus assigned to Gauṛa was supported by several considerations:—

1. Bidyâpati's meeting with Chaṇḍi Dās, who lived in the adjacent district of Birbhūm.

2. The renown of Nadiyā as the birth-place of Chaitanya, who, as we know from the *Chaitanya-charitāmṛta*, was fond of singing Bidyâpati's poems.

3. The fact that Nadiyā was the seat of a celebrated family of rājās.

The conclusion as to the poet's country being Nadiyā did not even then seem to us to harmonize with his language, and some of my Bengali friends wished to explain it by the theory that the poet used the Braj Bhāshā dialect as specially appropriate to songs in praise of Kṛṣṇa. To this theory there were, however, the objections that Bidyâpati's language, though Hindi, is clearly not Braj Bhāshā, or anything like it, but Maithilā, which is a very different thing; and that prior to the restoration of the Kṛṣṇa-cultus at Brindāban by Rāpa and Sanātana, followers of Chaitanya, the Braj Bhāshā was not considered peculiarly appropriate to Kṛṣṇa-hymns. Jayadeva, for instance, as well as Rāpa and Sanātana themselves, used Sanskrit.

To solve this question the writer in the *Banga Darśana* starts by observing that Bidyâpati's contemporary Chaṇḍi Dās writes Bengali, and this explodes the theory that Bengali was in that age unformed, and closely resembling rustic Hindi. After discussing this point, he goes on to show, from the celebrated meeting of the two poets, that Bidyâpati's home must have been in some place not very far from Birbhūm, and he has been led by this argument to seek for it in the nearest Hindi-speaking province: for if Chaṇḍi Dās, being a Bengali, wrote Kṛṣṇa-hymns in his mother-tongue, it is a fair inference that Bidyâpati would also use his mother-

he deserves. In the text I have not ventured to alter a single word or to touch the metre, whether faulty or not; and in my translations I have aimed chiefly at fidelity. However imperfectly I may have accomplished my task, I venture to hope that I shall not be charged with rashness,

since my acquaintance with Jellāl-al-din Rūmī is of more than twenty years' standing, and I flatter myself that I have, during that time, learnt to understand him a little. Nothing would please me more than to see better justice done to this poet than I can do.

tongue; and as the language he uses is Maithila Hindi, the conclusion is that he was a native of Mithilā. I may here add to the writer's argument that Maithila closely approximates to Bengali, as in the *la* of the preterite, the characteristic *ba* of the future, the interchange of *l* and *n*, the nominal affixes *ke* and *re*, and other points.

He next notices the allusions made by the poet to his patrons Rāja Sib Singha (Śiva Sinha) and Rūpanārāyaṇa; his patron's wife, Lachimā Debi; his friends Bijayanārāyaṇa and Baidyanātha; and concludes that the poet was attached to the court of Sib Singh.*

By a happy inspiration he appears to have thought of consulting some learned men of the province of Mithilā, which was nearly co-extensive with the modern district of Tirhut, occupying the country between the Ganges and the Himālayas, and extending on the west as far as the Gaṇḍak river, and on the east quite up to, if not beyond, the old bed of the Kūsi river in Purāniya (Purneah).

As the result of his researches he found that *Bidyapati* is still well known in Tirhut, and has left some lyrics which are still sung by the people and are in Maithila. On this point, however, I would observe that these songs may have been modernized: indeed they look very much as if they had,—such words as *hia*, *garua*, *dharaṇaku*, look suspicious. But the most important discovery is that of a *Pāñji* or chronicle of the kings of Mithilā. It is to be wished that the author had told us where this book is to be found. He merely tells us that it is in Mithilā, and begins in Śaka 1248, in the reign of Hari Singha Deva. The date and the king's name agree in a singular way with that Hari Singha Deva whose capital was at Simraon (Sansk. Samaragrāma), and who was conquered by Tughlak Shāh in A.D. 1322, and fled to the mountains, where he founded the kingdom of Nepāl, with its capital, Kāthmāṇḍo, or 'the wooden palace.' Simraon is in the extreme north-west corner of Tirhut, and its ruins are very extensive.

In the *Pāñji* mention is made of a king of Tirhut, Śiva Sinha, and at his court it is recorded that there was one *Bidyapati*, son of Gaṇapati, son of Jaya Datta, son of Dhires-

wara, son of Devāditya, son of Dharmāditya. This is our poet, and it is strange that there should be two circumstantial traditions about the same man. The Maithilas claim him as their own, and the Bengalis, as mentioned (*Ind. Ant.* vol. II. p. 37), make him out to be a Jesore man—

"Orbis de patriā certat, Homere, tuā."

Rāja Sib Singha is said to have lived at Sugaonā, a village still extant. A curious legend is told of his being delivered from prison at Delhi—into which he had been cast by the Emperor—through the instrumentality of our poet, who showed himself to be possessed of miraculous powers. The Pādshāh gave him the village of Bīpasī, in Tirhut; and Sib Singha, apparently to save his own claims as zamindār, also made him a grant of the same. The deed of gift is said to be still extant in the possession of the poet's descendants, who still own the village.

Certain expressions in this grant raise a question of date which is somewhat difficult to settle.

The document recites that the grant was made in the two hundred and ninety-third year of the era of Lakshman Sen. The Sen Rājas of Bengal must then have exercised some sort of over-lordship in Mithilā. The writer tells us that the era of Lakshman Sen is still current among the paṇḍits of Mithilā, and that the year 1874 A.D. = 767 of Lakshman, or the L. S. era as it is called. The era therefore begins in A.D. 1107 or Śaka 1030, and L. S. 293 = Śaka 1323 and A.D. 1400. The Bengali tradition as to the poet's date gives him from A.D. 1433-1481, which is a little later than the date now given.

But there is another difficulty. The *Pāñji* states that Sib Singha's reign did not begin till Śaka 1369 = A.D. 1446, so that the grant was made 46 years before he ascended the throne. The Maithila paṇḍits get out of this by saying that the grant was made when Sib Singh was acting as *Jubārājā* or regent for his father, and they add that his father, Rāja Deba Singh, reigned 91 years, so that he must have been old and infirm for a long period before his death. Still that he should have been obliged to resign all active participation in the govern-

* Vide the article in *Ind. Ant.* vol. II. quoted above.

ment 46 years before his death is hardly probable.

This date, moreover, would give Bidyāpati himself a very long life. Two productions of his are still extant, besides his lyrical poems. One is a prose work in Sanskrit, the *Parusha Parikshā*, which was translated into Bengali by one of the pandits of Fort William College, and is still remembered by Bengal civilians as one of those instruments of torture known as text-books which we used to plod wearily over in our college days. Now in the introduction to this tedious work it is said to have been written at the request of Rāja Sib Singha then reigning, or 46 years after the grant of land, when Bidyāpati could not well have been less than 66 or 70 years old.

The second work is in Sanskrit verse, and is called the *Durgābhakti Tarāṅgīnī*; it is said to have been written in the reign of Rāja Nara Singha, who did not ascend the throne till 26 years later: so at his accession the poet must have been at least 92 years old, even supposing him to have been quite a young man when he got the grant.

The descendants of Bidyāpati at Bīpasi are stated to have in their possession a copy of the *Bhāgavat Purāṇa* in the handwriting of the poet, written in L. S. 349 = Śaka 1879 or A.D. 1456.

The writer in the *Banga Darīana* is not at all surprised at the great age attained by the poet; he merely remarks that a contemplative life is conducive to longevity, and that there are many instances of Brāhmins devoted to literature reaching a great age. I would suggest the possibility of there having been more than one Bidyāpati, and that the word is not a proper name, but a title, like Rai Gunākar or Kabi Kankan. There is perhaps some weight in the Bengali tradition that the poet's real name was Basanta Rai.

The *Pāñjī* states that Rāja Deva Singha reigned 91 years, and the dates of the various reigns of this period may be thus given:—

Deva Singha...	A.D. 1355,	reigned 91 years.
Sib Singha ...	1446	" 3½ "
Rānī Padmāvatī Debī.	1450	" 1½ "
Rānī Lakṣmī Debī...	1452	" 9 "
Rānī Biswās Debī ...	1461	" 12 "
Nara Singha.....	1473	

It also appears that Rūpanārāyaṇa, whose name so constantly occurs immediately following that of Sib Singha, is not an independent personage, but that the kings of that family took the title of Nārāyaṇa with some prefix. Thus we find Mahārājas Nara Singha Darpanārāyaṇa, Ratna Singha Jivananārāyaṇa, Raghu Singha Bijayanārāyaṇa, and others.

The patron of our poet was thus called in full Mahārāja Sib Singh Rūpanārāyaṇa. He had three wives—the three Rānīs mentioned above—who, according to the *Pāñjī*, reigned in succession, and after them reigned Nara Singha, Sib Singha's cousin.

Mithilā was always closely allied to Bengal, and was subject to it at the time of the introduction of the L. S. era. This accounts for our poet's salutation to the "pañcha Gauṛeśvara," princes of Mithilā being regarded as also princes of Gauṛ or Bengal. The five princes are probably Sib Singha and his four cousins, Nara, Ratna, Raghu, and Bhānu, the first of whom came eventually to be the ruling prince.

The Lachīmī Debī whom the poet so frequently celebrates is the second of the three wives of Sib Singha, and her name—a corruption of Lakṣmī—is also written Lakṣmī, in consonance with Hindi phonesis.

We must then regard Bidyāpati as a poet of Mithilā, where he is still remembered and has left descendants. His language, though no longer to be regarded as old Bengali, is very closely akin to it, and represents a link between fifteenth century Bengali and Hindi. With one hand he touches Sūr Dās, with the other Chandi Dās.

He is said to have died at Bajitpur, a village near Dalsingha Sarai, about ten miles north-east of Bārh. He was on his way to the Ganges, to end his days there, when death overtook him on the road.

If the writer of the article I have been discussing would give us some more information as to this Maithilī *Pāñjī*, it would be welcome, and it would also be interesting to know whether Rāja Sib Singha Rūpanārāyaṇa was in any way connected with the family whose present representative is still the nominal ruler of Nepāl.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL NOTES.

BY M. J. WALHOUSE, LATE M.C.S.

(Continued from page 274.)

VII.—*Bronze Antiquities in India.*

The elegantly-shaped bronze jug represented, actual size, in the accompanying plate, was dug up some fifteen years ago near Avinâśi, in the Koimbatour district, Madras. A great city is traditionally said to have stood where it was found, but only some indistinct mounds and hollows now mark the spot, not only '*periēre etiam ruinæ*'—have the very ruins perished,—but the name too has been forgotten, and only a dim tradition survives that palaces and temples once spread widely there. Such legends are not uncommon in India, to whose ancient soil the declaration of the poet is peculiarly applicable—

"Thou canst not find one spot
Whereon no city stood."

With the jug were found a bronze globular oil-vessel with straight tapering spout, and a bronze stand for one wick, both of the forms still commonly in use; but the jug is of a shape not at all Hindu, nor indeed, though elegant and classical, hardly Greek*,—rather resembling what is known to modern manufacturers as 'the Windsor pattern.' It should be remarked that the illustration might convey the idea that the rim opposite the handle is furnished with a spout. This is not the case, however; the rim is really broken away more or less all round, the top of the handle not being attached, but a fracture existing between. From some indications it seems probable that the original rim spread round in a perfect circle 5½ inches in diameter, without any spout or depression for pouring out. This would have given the jug a much more archaic appearance; the shape of the handle with its plaited ornament will be noticed.

Avinâśi is about a hundred miles from the Malabar coast, between which and Egypt there was certainly a frequent communication in very ancient times; and the Greek and Phœnician sailors, who took home peacocks and perfumes from thence, may have brought out with them such an article as this bronze jug. Further evidence of communication is given by a pot full of well-preserved coins of Augustus and Tiberius, which was dug up at Polâchi, in

Koimbatour, in 1810: and there is, I believe, historical proof that one of the Pândyan kings sent an embassy to Augustus. Copper ornaments are occasionally found in the cairns in Central and Southern India, and in 1870 more than a ton of rudely shaped copper hatchets without sockets, and instruments like knives, were dug up in the Bâlaghatt, Maisur; some are now in the British Museum.

VIII.—*Masons' Marks.*

The thirteenth century was distinguished by a wonderful development of architectural works and skill throughout Europe, and so great a resemblance runs through many of the magnificent monuments then erected, that they have been supposed to owe their origin to associations of artificers travelling over Europe, and employing the knowledge of mathematics and design, that had awoke from the Dark Ages, in the service of art and construction, chiefly ecclesiastical. In that age of faith

"The architect

Built his great heart into the sculptured
stones,

And with him toiled his children, and their
lives

Were builded, with his own, into the walls,
As offerings unto God."

Such an association was that of the *Fratres Pontis*, who wandered from realm to realm for the purpose of building bridges when travelling became more general, and communication between countries more frequent, as the arts and civilization expanded. Many a pilgrim would then ejaculate with a thankfulness ill understood in these days of excursions made easy—

"God's blessing on the architects who build
The bridges o'er swift rivers and abysses
Before impassable to human feet."

These societies of wise master-builders and co-workers are believed to have instituted certain secret signs and tokens, by which they might know one another and the works built by the fraternity, and hence are said to have originated many of the signs and passwords of Freemasonry; for they were also styled Free-Masons,—equivalent, as some say, to free-stone

* Perhaps most nearly approaching the *Oinochoë*.



Photographed & Printed by W. DODD, LONDON.

ANCIENT BRONZE JUG: DUG UP IN KOIMBATUR MADRAS,
ACTUAL SIZE.

workers; or, as others assert, from their engaging and combining to assist one another, and not to work unless free and on their own terms. This was no unnecessary precaution, for in those days kings and powerful corporations, intent on building castles or churches, had small compunction in impressing skilled workmen, and forcing them to work on terms dictated.

Not only had these old craftsmen a system of secret signs for knowing one another, but also of marks or symbols cut on courses of stones laid by them, which disclosed to the initiated their presence and handiwork. Much that is mystical and extravagant has been propounded respecting these "Masons' Marks," but it seems probable they were nothing more than the personal marks of the masters of the works, conveying, in forms determined by the associations, directions to the setters how to lay the stones. Similar marks are indeed used in building to this hour, and by them each mason recognizes the particular stone for the correct workmanship of which he is answerable. On large works a list is kept by the foreman, and any new man having a marking similar to one already on the list must make a distinctive difference. Skilled masons say that from the character of the mark they can tell the kind of stone on which it was made.

It is certainly striking, however, to find the same Masons' Marks, whatever their original intent, upon the grandest architectural monuments from Iceland to Spain and Italy, and still more remarkable, and more to our present purpose, to find them similarly used in India and other Eastern countries. Some of the marks are well-known Indian symbols, such as the ubiquitous *svastikā*, 卐, which Mr. Fergusson considers still unexplained, but which may have been a signature of the ancient Jaina kings. In Iceland it was called Thor's Hammer, and is found on Runic monuments, ancient Roman altars, Danish medals, English and Spanish cathedrals, the Minster at Bâle, the church at Oshatz, and may be seen in high relief on a brass amulet, brought from Ashanti, in the South Kensington Museum.

The late Charles Horne, B.C.S., F.R.A.S., &c., a most diligent archæologist, collected Masons' Marks during several years' service in the

North-West Provinces, and published, in *The Builder* of 26th June 1869, a notice of them, accompanied by a collection of examples, copied on the annexed Plate I. Nos. 1—6.* He remarks that in large and ancient buildings he often found forty or fifty stones near to one another marked in a similar manner, having been probably all dressed by the same man on five sides, with the rough side left innermost, on which he set his mark. This would then be useful in computing the amount of work done, which was paid for by contract, as is now the practice in the Allahâbâd quarries where stone was cut for the Jamnâ Railway bridge. On many ancient stones directions in Sanskrit characters, such as *right hand, bottom of pillar, upright, &c.*, were cut: the characters of the *Instructions* (No. 5) in the plate are Gupta, circa 300 A.D., and were translated for Mr. Horne by Bâbu Râjendralâla Mitra, as signifying (1) "Lâtha," *Lâth, monumental column*; (2) "Saûka," *latch-pia*; (3) "Kieha," *middle*; (4) "Puda,"—*initials of Pura, East Dakhn, south*; (5) *Upara, of the upper course*. General Cunningham, in his *Archæological Survey Reports*, vol. I., has, in plates xxxiv. and xxxvii., given figures of Masons' Marks from the great stûpa of Sârnâth and from the great mosque at Dehli; several of the latter are instructions for numbering and placing the stones. Some of the *Letters* following the *Instructions* (No. 6) are transliterated with doubt. The curious figure of the cock (No. 4) is cut on a black stone roof in a small tower in the south-west corner of the Atallah Masjid, and from its position must have been incised before the stone was placed, which was probably during the Muhammadan occupation. The marks from Sadiyâ, Upper Assam (No. 7), occurred on stones in the "Copper Temple," and are taken from plate xxx. vol. XVII. of the *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal* (page 467). The line of Persian marks (No. 8) taken from plate lxxxii. vol. III. of Sir W. Ouseley's *Travels in Persia* (page 563). He copied the marks (there called *nishda*) from large hewn stones in the magnificent ancient Palace of Saadekâbâd, *Abode of Happiness*, near Ispahân. Signs much resembling Masons' Marks are often found impressed on the bricks of the Birs-i-Nimrûd, or Tower of Babel. Advancing to Western Asia, *The Builder* of 12th June 1875 contains

* The Atallah Masjid and other buildings in the N.W.P. mostly date from A.D. 1300 to 1450.

a collection of marks, copied in Plate II. 9, obtained by Mr. G. J. Chester at Tartûs (Tortosa) and Jebeil, in the north of Syria, near Aradus, now Ruad, the Biblical Arvad, and communicated by him to the Committee of the Palestine Exploration Fund. At Tartûs there is a castle, an immense structure of massive drafted masonry of crusading date, incorporating probably still earlier constructions and masonry: the stones exhibit many Masons' Marks. There is also a cathedral, described as a noble edifice, extraordinarily perfect, fit to be used at any moment for Christian worship, consisting of four bays, the east end with three apses, each square outside; the roof of vaulted stone; the west front has a pointed doorway with a large threelfold window above it of exquisite proportion, and there are elegant lancet windows at the sides. The marks come chiefly from these buildings. Mr. Chester considers them to be Christian and European, such as were used in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, though some are of all dates and countries. A few marks (10, 13) from the Holy Land are added from Mr. Godwin's collection, and some from ruins in Lycia (No. 15); also a line of Roman marks from Pompeii (No. 14), and examples from Hadrian's wall (17) of the second century and Roman altars found in England (No. 16).

Still further to illustrate the subject and to assist comparison, several sets of marks (Nos. 18—27) from mediæval buildings all over Europe are selected from Mr. Godwin's collection published in *The Builder* of March 27, 1869 (vol. XXVII. pp. 245-246). The remarkable identity of marks used in widely separated countries and ages cannot fail to strike attention. Some are as universal as the *swastika*, and as full of mystical and typical meanings.* Such is the hour-glass form and the involved triangles, which when a pentacle are an emblem of Śiva and Brahmā, and the famous "Solomon's Seal," as well as a Masonic symbol; trident-shaped signs in the Indian and Persian marks, like the Greek ψ , which are identical with the Vaishṇava sect-mark, passes into the Government broad arrow mark, and (reversed) is a Gish character; and the T in the Runic al-

phabet. On European as well as on Asiatic buildings may be found Hindu caste-marks, Rosicrucian, Astrological, and Cabalistic signs, and characters occurring in the Etruscan, Lycian, Old Slavic, African, Gnostic, Palmyrene, and Cufic alphabets, as well as the progressional varieties of the Indian Alphabets. The V, N, W, and A forms are of all countries and ages. Indeed, not the least curious point in this subject is the fact that nearly all the Runic letters are found figuring far and wide as Masons' Marks,—a circumstance not to be lost sight of by those who affirm that Odin, "the inventor of the Runes," and his Aesir, were a people from the East. Amongst our present instances from Persia the not uncommon mark ζ is the Runic S; this character also occurs in the Aśoka and Western Cave Inscriptions, in which it has the power of ζ ; it is also found in the Arianian Alphabet, as given by the late Prof. Wilson in his *Ariana Antiqua*, where it represents ρ , and finally in the Hinyaritic Inscriptions of Southern Arabia it is π :—astro-nomically it denotes Saturn.

In connection with this subject the alphabets and inscriptions given in vol. I. of Prinsep's *Essays on Indian Antiquities*; Prof. H. H. Wilson's paper on Rock Inscriptions of Kapurdi Giri, Dhauri, and Girnār, in the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, vol. XII., and the Arianian Alphabet above mentioned; the progressional Alphabet in Hope's *Inscriptions in Dharwar and Mysore*, and Plate 2 of Hindu Symbols and Caste-marks in Moor's *Hindu Pantheon* may be referred to: as also Mr. Burnell's *Elements of South Indian Palæography*. The length of Masons' Marks, it may be mentioned, ranges from 1 in. to 5 in. or 6 in.; the majority, however, are from 2 in. to 3 in. long. When I became alive to the subject, I had no opportunity of examining the great temples of Southern India, but only the remains of Jaina architecture occurring in Kānara. On these I could find no mark, though it is far from impossible they may exist. Search on buildings all over India,† as well as in Afghanistan and adjacent countries, would doubtless discover multitudes, which it would be interesting to

* In a chamber of the Great Pyramid is out the hall surmounted by a cross, the same as the coronation hall and that on the top of St. Paul's Cathedral: reversed it is the astronomical sign of Venus. Though now an eminently Christian symbol, it bore a widely different signification in

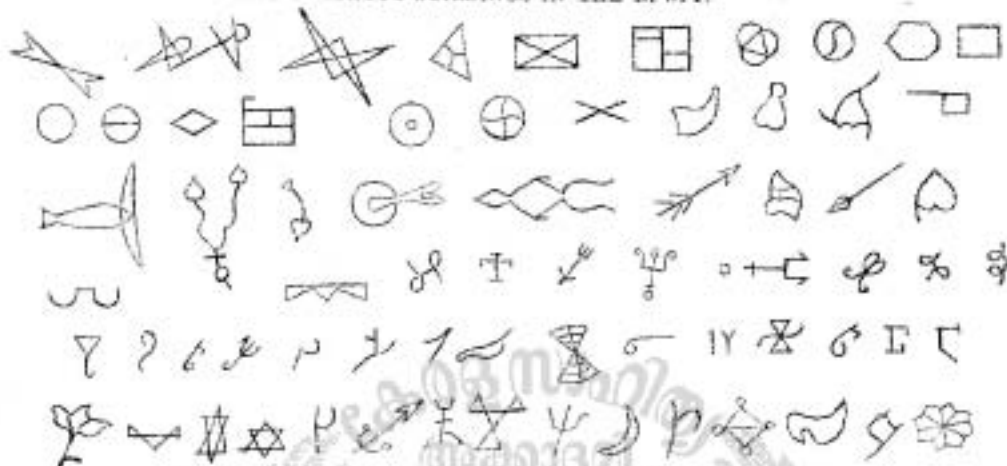
the preceding ages.

† For a collection of Masons' Marks from the T & J; see the *Freemasons' Quarterly Review*, vol. XII. (1845) p. 319; and for other notices, *ib.* p. 441 ff. and vol. XIII. (1846) p. 410.—Ep.

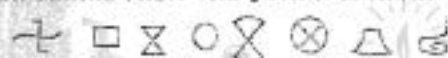
1 FROM THE ATÁLAH MASJID, JAUNPŪR N. W. P.



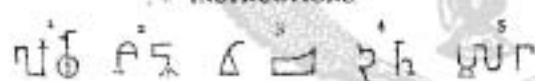
2 FROM VARIOUS BUILDINGS IN THE N. W. P.



3 MODERN MARKS FROM THE JUMNA RAILWAY BRIDGE.



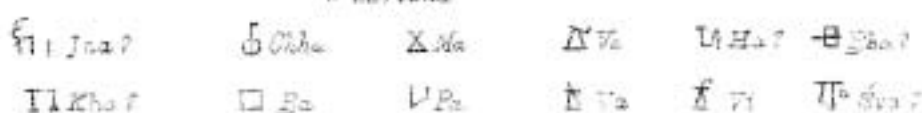
4 INSTRUCTIONS



5 IN ATÁLAH MASJID



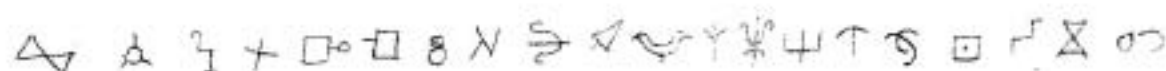
6 LETTERS



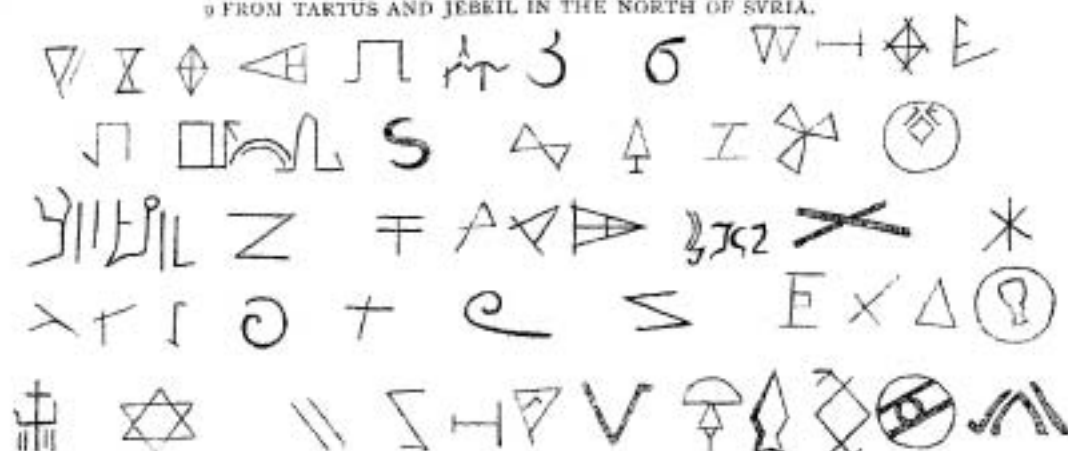
7 FROM SADIYA, UPPER ASSAM.



8 FROM THE PALACE AT SAADETABAD NEAR ISPAHAN, PERSIA.



9 FROM TARTÛS AND JEBEIL IN THE NORTH OF SYRIA.



10 FROM JERUSALEM



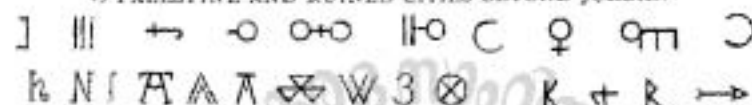
11 GREAT PYRAMID



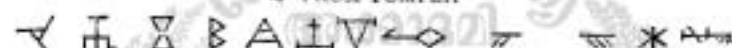
12 FROM ABU GOSH



13 PALESTINE AND RUINED CITIES BEYOND JORDAN



14 FROM POMPEII



15 FROM ADALIA, LYCIA.

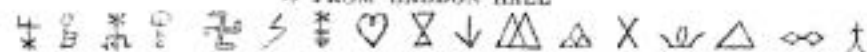
16 ON ROMAN ALTARS, 17 HADRIAN'S WALL.



18 FROM LINCOLN CATHEDRAL



19 FROM HADDON HALL

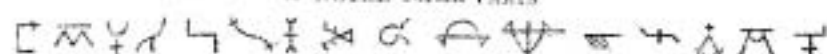


20 GLASGOW CATHEDRAL.

21 STRASBURG CATHEDRAL.



22 NOTRE DAME PARIS

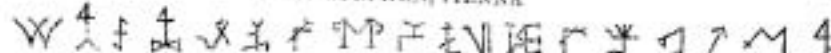


23 CATHEDRAL LAUSANNE

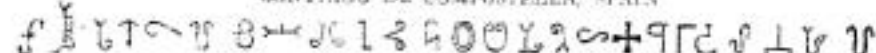
24 CATHEDRAL GENEVA



25 ST. STEPHEN, VIENNA



SANTIAGO DE COMPOSTELLA, SPAIN



27 SANTA MARIA, SEGOVIA, SPAIN.

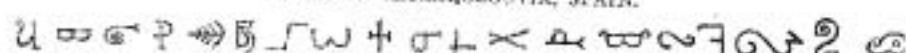


Fig. 2.



TOMB BEYOND NELLIMILLY, UPPER GODAVARI.

Fig. 1.



DRavidIAN TOMB, CAIRN REMOVED, NELLIMILLY UPPER GODAVARI.

Fig. 3.



MENHIRS NEAR REVERALA, KRISHNA DISTRICT.

Fig. 4.



DRavidIAN TOMB, CAIRN REMOVED, NELLIMILLY UPPER GODAVARI.

MENHIRS NEAR REVERALA, KRISHNA DISTRICT.

compare with marks that may be found in Ceylon, Siam, Kamhodia, and Java. Should any be discovered in remoter China and Japan, the interest would be increased: for though the sub-

ject is probably more curious than important, it might point to some useful conclusions, and throw perhaps a ray of light on the early history of architecture.

NOTES ON THE ANTIQUITIES FOUND IN PARTS OF THE UPPER GODĀVARĪ AND KRISHNĀ DISTRICTS.

(From the Proceedings of the Madras Government, Public Department, 11th Feb. 1875.)

These antiquities consist of the cairns and tombs of Dravidians or earlier Skythians, of Skythian tombs of the later period, ruins of Buddhist and Hindu temples, and stone crosses of the early Christian period.

1. In the Upper Godāvarī, British side, and Krishnā Districts south of Jagiāpeṣā, Dravidian or earlier Skythian tombs and cairns are found in groups, particularly in the Krishnā District, where there are hundreds on one hill alone. The cairns are constructed of four stone slabs on edge, and slab at bottom and one on top; then round the tomb a ring of small stones some twelve feet in diameter, and small stones, within that, heaped over the grave. The grave is sunk from two to four feet in the ground, according to the breadth of the side slabs. The sizes of the graves are from one foot six inches long by one foot broad to six feet long by two feet broad. In the Krishnā District the slabs are limestone; in the Upper Godāvarī, trap, metamorphic rock, and sandstone. I have opened several of these graves and found a skeleton. The body had been laid on the right side, head resting on right arm—head always north, feet south. The bones were invariably so damaged that they crumbled almost at a touch. The upper slabs on the tombs vary in size. I have found them from four feet by three feet to eight feet by six feet; some of the smaller tombs have no slabs on them on top, but only small stones piled up as a cairn. (See Fig. 1.) In none of the graves have I found any ornaments, beads, or pottery.

I think that these graves must be between 3,000 and 4,000 years old.*

2. *Skythian Tombs*.—These I have only seen in the Upper Godāvarī; they are tombs without cairns. These tombs have no slabs at bottom, only four forming the sides; they are generally four feet by three feet, some with immense slabs on top. I have measured them fourteen feet

by five feet; they lay irrespective of compass bearing. The graves are filled up with small earthen pots filled with burnt bones and clay. I have found beads apparently made of ivory, and some small glass ones of red and green colour, in the pot that contains the charred remains of the skull. (Fig. 2.)

There is a splendid tomb made of sandstone on the Nizām's side of the river opposite Lingala; the slab on top is nine feet square; the tomb surrounded with eight rings of stone (sunk in the ground) some seven feet in diameter, and is evidently a chief's grave. I had no opportunity to open and examine it; but another grave, with smaller slabs and fewer rings round it, I opened. In the tomb there were the usual pots with bones and beads; the rings contain a skeleton with feet in towards the tomb, the skull placed between the knees. These were the skeletons of slaves that had been sacrificed on the death of a chief, number according to rank. Herodotus describes this ceremony. These two different tombs alluded to in the foregoing are indiscriminately called by the natives *vāḥṣasi-guḥḥā*, 'tombs of the giants'; this is a misnomer. None of the skeletons I have met with exceed in size those of the present day; and the unburnt bones in the other tombs, pieces of ribs, arm-bones and pieces of the skull, are just the usual size.

The graves with the charred bones of the dead probably belong to the Northern race of Skythians, who may have learned the custom of cremation during the Grecian invasion in their country 325 years B.C., and brought this custom south in their wars. The upright stones in connection with demon-worship I have only found in the Krishnā District (see Figs. 3, 4). The Kolhs and Gonds put up wooden posts for the same rite.

3. Ruins of Hindu temples of the earlier mains; and the name *Skythian* is, to say the least, unsatisfactory.—Ed.

* No dependence can be placed on the conclusions mentioned in this paper respecting the ages of the re-

period before Buddhism I have not found, either in the Godāvari or Kṛishṇā District, in the places I have visited; all the pieces among the ruins have grotesque and unhuman-shaped sculpture on them, which is not the case in the earlier temples, where some of the sculptures of human beings are almost equal to those of the Greeks.

Of the remains of Buddhist temples I have seen two in the Upper Godāvari. One has the appearance of having been one of the fortified Buddhist temples. The wall of the enclosure, some 600 feet square, had on two sides a rough stone wall faced with cut stone some eighteen feet high; on the other two sides the hill is a cliff. The entrance gate was built of immense blocks of stone; the top beam consisted of a square stone with Buddha and two elephants with pots in their trunks pouring water on him carved on it.* Subsequently this temple seems to have passed into Hindu hands. By the broken stone bulls in the enclosure, and by some Muhammadan coins found in the old well, now nearly filled up with rubbish, it seems to have been occupied by them, probably as a fortress, for which it is well situated, being close to the ruin at Davarapilli.

The next instance of Buddhism are two stones (built into a small temple at Lingala) with the sacred duck or dodo carved on them.

I have not seen any remains of Jain temples or idols in the Upper Godāvari.

Ruins of Hindu temples are numerous both on the British and Nizām's side of the river. The temples have all been small, and the idols very roughly carved. Of the present temples in the Upper Godāvari none exceed 400 years in age. One small temple at Purnashala is said to be built near the spot from which the wife of Rāma was carried off to Ceylon, and on one stone in a *vagu* at the back of the temple is shown a

footprint, said to be the spot the wife stood on when she was forcibly carried off. The footprint is thin; but I rather think it has been cut in the stone. In excavating among the ruins of a small temple at Nelimilli, some four miles north-east of Damagudem, I found a rough stone (hard) some two feet six inches long by one foot four inches broad and four inches thick; on it are carved some Telugu letters. The language is Sanskrit; the date is plain; the stone is 750 years old.

4. The Christian remains are on the Nizām's side near Mūṅapetā in the jungles, and consist of several stone crosses; † one some thirteen feet high, and also a structure which on first appearance looks like a tomb; it is seven feet above ground, about eight feet square, closed on three sides, open on one, and roofed in with an immense slab of stone. When I saw them I was pressed for time, and so did not examine them closely. I did not see any inscription, nor had I means to make any excavation. To fix the date of these crosses is rather a difficult matter. Christianity (the Syrian Church) was introduced into India in 400 A.D. These churches remained in peace till the arrival of the Portuguese in the fifteenth century, when persecution began, and was brought to a climax in 1599 A.D., when Meneses, Archbishop of Goa, instituted the Inquisition, and ordered all the Syrian books to be destroyed and burnt. It is well known that many of the Syrian Christians sought refuge by flight inland,—they were favourably looked on by the Hindus; but whether these crosses were put up by them, or belong to an earlier period, ‡ is a question that can only be decided in case any inscriptions are found on or near them.

T. VANSTAVEEN,

Executive Engineer, D.P.W.

Ravelala, 4th Dec. 1874.

PROGRESS OF ORIENTAL RESEARCH, 1874-75.

(Abridged from the Annual Report of the Royal Asiatic Society, May 1875.)

Professor John Dowson has contributed to Part 2, Vol. VII. of the *Jour. R. As. Soc.* a paper on a Bactrian-Pāli inscription of considerable interest

* Is this not Lakshmi the consort of Vishnu, rather than Buddha?—*Archæological Report for Belgées and Kandahar*, p. 13; Fergusson's *Tree and Serpent Worship*, 2nd ed. pp. 108, 112, 113, 120, 242, 268.—Ed.

† These crosses belong to the same age as the neighbouring tombs: conf. Fergusson's *Rude Stone Monuments*, pp.

brought from Takh-ti-Bah by Dr. Leitner, and now in the Labor Museum. The document records the name and title of the king *mahdrayasa Guṇapharasa*, whom both General Cunningham and Professor Dowson, independently of each other,

486-89.—Ed.

‡ Had Syrian Christians existed in the Haidarābād territories so late as the seventeenth century, we should in all probability have had some mention of the fact. If Christian, these crosses can hardly be of later date than A.D. 1000.—Ed.

have identified with Gondophares. They disagreed, however, as to the date, the latter reading it as "the 26th year of the king, on the 7th day of the month Vaiśākha," whilst the former read it as "the year Sāhvāt 103 (A.D. 46), the 4th of Vaiśākha, the 26th year of the king's reign." Professor Dowson has now taken the inscription up once more, and adopts General Cunningham's interpretation of the word *sāhvatāra* as meaning the Sāhvāt (or Vikramāditya) era. His revised reading of the date is "the 26th year of the king, the year 100 of the Sāhvāt, the 3rd day of Vaiśākha." Another communication of considerable antiquarian interest is an account by Mr. T. H. Blakesley of Ceylon on the ruins of Sigiri. The rock of Sigiri, in the north extremity of the central province of Ceylon, which rises some 500 feet above the surrounding plain, appears in early times to have constituted the citadel of a fortified position, surrounded by earthworks and moats, the sides of which are in some parts revetted with stone. Mr. Blakesley has traced out two quadrangular areas, comprising, together with the rock, a space of some 600 acres, and defended not only by these walls and moats, but, on the eastern side, by a large artificial lake, which he thinks must have been used also for the purposes of agricultural irrigation. Extensive earthworks or *bānds* for the diversion of running water into particular channels have also been traced in different directions for some miles. Mr. Blakesley ascribes these earthworks to King Kaśyapa the Parricide, who lived in the fifth century of our era; and the completion of the irrigation arrangements to Parākrama Bāhu in the middle of the twelfth century. Earlier than either of them—indeed, as early as the first century B.C.—are, in his opinion, the walls of cyclopean masonry still to be seen at Mapagala, a pair of rocks about half a mile south of the rock of Sigiri.

In the numbers of the *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal* of 1874 which have been hitherto received, the most important contribution is a translation from the Arabic, by Major E. C. Ross, at Maskat, of the *Kashf-al-Ghhamah*, which, in the translator's opinion, is to be considered as the most authentic and coherent account of the history of 'Omān that has emanated from native sources. The work appears to be extremely rare. Major Ross had only heard of two copies existing in 'Omān, from one of which his translation has been prepared. The name of the author of the work was not given in the manuscript, but Major Ross was informed by some learned men that the author was Sirhān-bīn-Sā'id, a native of Izkf.

Bābū Rājendrakāla Mitra discusses at length the question as to the supposed identity of the Greeks

with the Yavanas. The conclusions at which he arrives are chiefly these: That originally the term Yavana was the name of a country and of its people to the west of Kandahār, which may have been Arabia, or Persia, or Media, or Assyria—probably the last; that subsequently it became the name of all these countries; and that there is not a tittle of evidence to show that it was at any one time the exclusive name of the Greeks.

The discovery by Mr. Westmacott of seventeen Arabic inscriptions, ranging from A.H. 859 to 938, at Maldah, has enabled Dr. H. Blochmann to continue his valuable contributions to the geography and history of Bengal during the Muhammadan period.

In the *Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society* Mr. E. Rehatsek has published facsimiles and annotated readings of twelve Himyaritic inscriptions—nine of which are inscribed on stone, and three on metal plates—which the Society procured a few years ago from Arabia, together with eight Arabic talismanic medicine-cups, facsimiles and descriptions of which are likewise published by Mr. Rehatsek. Of the Himyaritic inscriptions two are written in the *Besorpoqṣṣ* style. Another contribution of considerable importance is a series of Sanskrit and Old Canarese Inscriptions relating to the Raṭṭa Chieftains of Saundatṭi and Boḷgaum, in modern Canarese character, with translation and notes, by Mr. J. F. Fleet. These documents furnish a very satisfactory view of the two powerful families which play such an important part in the history of the Chālukyas during a period of about three centuries and a half, from the time they were first raised from the rank of spiritual preceptors to the position of chieftains. The value of Mr. Fleet's communication would have been considerably enhanced by facsimile copies. The same number contains a legendary account of King Śālivāhana or Śātavāhana, drawn from a Marāṭhī treatise entitled *Śālivāhana-charitra*, by Rao Sāheb V. N. Maṇḍlik.

Mr. K. T. Telang has given two papers: in one of them he endeavours to fix the date of Madhusūdana Sarasvatī, who commented on the *Bhagavadgītā*, at about the end of the 15th or the beginning of the 16th century; whilst in the other he gives a Chālukya copperplate grant, and examines the chronology of the Western line of that dynasty down to Vijayāditya (A.D. 695 to 733).

Archæology—India.—The Council are happy to be able to state that since the last anniversary meeting considerable progress has been made in the Archæological Survey of India, including some discoveries which have the most important bearing on our knowledge of the ancient art and religion of

that country. Of these the most prominent is that made by General Cunningham of the half-buried rail of the top at Bhārahut, which he thinks belongs to a period not long subsequent to the age of Aśoka. These remains appear to be covered with the most elaborate bas-reliefs, which afford a wonderfully complete illustration of the arts of the period, as well as an authentic picture of the early forms of the Buddhist faith.

Some years ago, when Mr. Fergusson first published his work on *Tree and Serpent Worship*, it was scarcely suspected that the *Jātakas*, or legendary lives of Buddha, were of any great antiquity. Before, however, the second edition appeared, Mr. Fergusson had been enabled, with Mr. Beal's assistance, to identify among the sculptures of the Sānci Top some scenes from the *Vessantara* and other *Jātakas*, the conversion of the Kāśyapas, and other incidents in the life of Buddha. There were then already sufficient indications to make it probable—though they were not strong enough to prove it—that at least a great part of the Buddhist literature of Ceylon and Nepāl was as old as the Christian era. The great merit of General Cunningham's discovery consequently consists in the Bhārahut rail being older than anything hitherto known; in the scenes represented being more numerous and varied than those at Sānci and Āmarāvati, and in their being all inscribed with the same names which the *Jātakas* bear in Buddhist literature. The incidents depicted are sometimes not in themselves easily recognized; but the names of the principal actors being written alongside of them, there can be no possible mistake as to the persons they are intended to represent.

Mr. Burgess's Report on his first season's work as Archaeological Surveyor, in the districts of Belgaum and Kalāṅgi, is replete with information on the antiquities of these districts, which were only imperfectly known before. The volume is profusely illustrated by photographs and plans, as well as drawings of details; but the point of most permanent interest is probably the discovery in the Badāmi caves of inscriptions bearing dates from a well-ascertained epoch, and in the reign of a king whose name was previously familiar to us from other documents. No inscriptions with either a date or a recognizable name had hitherto been found in any Brāhmanical cave, and there was thus no clue to their age except the assumed progression of style. Now, however, that Cave No. III. at Badāmi is known to have been dedicated in the twelfth year of King Maṅgalīśvara, 500 years after the inauguration of the king of the Śakas, or A.D. 578, we have a fixed point to start from. The first inference

we shall probably have to draw from this discovery seems to be that the Brāhmanical caves at Elora and elsewhere were not always of a later date than, but were, in some instances at least, contemporary with, the latest Buddhist caves; whilst it also appears that it may be necessary to carry back the present form of the Hindu Pantheon to a considerably earlier period than was hitherto assigned to it.

Lieutenant Cole has also published his report on the buildings in the neighbourhood of Agra; and, though containing little that is new, its illustrations are a valuable contribution to our knowledge of the district.

For several years past a party of Sappers have been employed in exploring the remains of the Buddhist buildings in the district of Peshāwar. Plans of the buried monasteries at Takht-i-Bahi, Jamālgarhi, and Harkai, which they have uncovered, have been published in the *Lahor Gazette*, but unfortunately on so small a scale and so imperfectly as hardly to be intelligible. The sculptures found in these excavations have all been sent to the Lahor Museum, but, again unfortunately, without any steps being taken to indicate from what place the specimens came; so that General Cunningham was only able to ascertain the original site of six. Notwithstanding all this, they form a group of sculptures nearly as interesting as those from Bhārahut; and though, unfortunately, none of them are inscribed, there will probably be little difficulty in identifying most of the scenes they are intended to represent. Although we have at present no means of ascertaining the dates of these sculptures with anything like precision, it appears probable that they extend from the Christian era to the Hijrah. But the most interesting point is that they seem to exhibit a marked classical, or at least Western influence. It remains, however, to be ascertained whether this arose from the seed planted there by the Baktrian Greeks, or whether it was the result of continued communication between the west and the north-west corner of India during the period indicated. It is to be hoped that a selection from these in the Lahor Museum will be brought home, as they are entirely thrown away where they are.

Ceylon.—Thanks to the enlightened interest taken by Mr. Gregory, the present Governor of Ceylon, in archaeological research, steps have been taken by the Colonial Office to have all inscriptions in the island copied and published. This important work has been undertaken by a German scholar, Dr. Paul Goldschmidt, who has hitherto given much attention to the study of the Indian Prakrits. According to the latest reports, Dr. Goldschmidt has already examined nearly all the

inscriptions at Anurâdhapura and Mahintale. At the former place a new inscription of considerable length has been discovered and copied by him. The Governor has likewise resolved to have the ruins in the island properly surveyed by a competent person, and plans, drawings, and descriptions of them published.

The appearance of Dr. A. Burnell's *Elements of South-Indian Palaeography* has successfully broken ground in an important but hitherto neglected branch of inquiry. The first chapter deals with the various theories regarding the date of the introduction of writing into India; whilst the second contains a conspectus of the alphabets and the chief dynasties of the South, followed by discussions on the South-Indian numerals, accents, and signs of punctuation; and finally by an essay on the different kinds of South-Indian inscriptions, with numerous palaeographic specimens, executed from original copper-plates, stones, and palm-leaf manuscripts.

The first volume of Bâbû Râjendralâla Mitra's long-expected work on the *Antiquities of Orissa* has just reached this country. The published volume deals more especially with the principles of Indian architecture, and with the social condition and religion of the Orissan temple-builders. It is copiously illustrated by lithographs. The second volume will describe in fuller detail the antiquities of Khandagiri, Udayagiri, Bhuvaneśvara, Kausrak, Alti, and Jayapur.

Sanskrit.—Professor Max Müller's edition of the *Rigveda*, with Sâyana's comment, originally undertaken under the liberal patronage of the Directors of the East India Company, afterwards continued by Her Majesty's Secretaries of State, has now been completed. The sixth volume contains, besides the concluding portion of the text and commentary, the second part of the useful *index verborum*, and an index of the *uttara-padas*, or second members of compound words, prepared by Dr. G. Thibaut.

Professor R. Roth, of Tübingen, is about, in conjunction with Professor W. D. Whitney, to bring out the long-expected second volume of the *Atharvaveda*, containing the *varies lectiones*. He has lately given an account of the manuscript materials he has obtained from India since the publication of the text. Of especial interest is a MS. which has been discovered in Kâśmîr, containing the *śikhd* or recension of the school of the Puippalâdas, the text of which greatly differs from that hitherto known.

The last volume of the *Transactions of the Göttingen Academy* contains a paper by Professor T. Benfey, in which he states his reasons for believing that the *Saṁhitâs* or combined texts of the Vedas

have been handed down to us in exactly the same form in which they were at the time when the hymns were first collected. These and other papers of a similar kind will be introductory to a complete grammar of the Vedas, which he has prepared for publication.

In his inaugural dissertation Dr. E. Grube has published the text and an *index verborum* of the *Suparṇadhya*, which, though reckoned among the supplementary treatises of the *Rigveda*, is evidently of comparatively modern origin. The subject of this treatise is the legend of the bet between the two wives of Kâśyapa, Sarpni (or Vinatâ) and Kadrâ, by which the former becomes the slave of the latter, until her son *Suparṇa* (Garuḍa) restores her to liberty by means of ambrosia he has forcibly taken from the gods.

To last year's volume of *Abhandlungen* of the Munich Academy Professor M. Haug has contributed an elaborate essay on the various theories and modes of Vedic accentuation, partly drawn from sources accessible to him alone in manuscripts procured by him in India. In the same paper Professor Haug endeavours to show that, so far from the Vedic accentuation being intended, as has been generally believed, for the actual accents of the language, it is only a kind of musical modulation, and that the notion which has hitherto prevailed as to the *udatta* marking the accented syllable of the word is altogether erroneous. Professor Haug's views have, however, already drawn forth protests from several Sanskrit scholars, by whom the numerous analogies between the *udatta* and the word-accent in the cognate languages, and the close connection between it and the guttation of vowels in many grammatical formations are justly insisted upon.

Since the publication, at Banâras, of the great commentary on Pâṇini's grammatical aphorisms, the *Mahâbhâṣya*, the Indian Government has brought out its magnificent photolithographic reproduction of the same work, together with the comments of Kaiyaṣa and Nâgojibhaṭṭa. This work, consisting of six volumes, of together 4674 pages, was originally undertaken at the suggestion of the late Professor Goldstücker, who had himself corrected all but 300 pages when he was overtaken by death, and thus precluded from seeing completed this grand monument of his untiring energy.

Professor Kielhorn, of Puṇâ, has now completed his translation of Nâgojibhaṭṭa's *Paribhâṣendushikha*, a work of infinite labour, for which he deserves the cordial thanks of all Sanskrit scholars. In Dr. Kielhorn's opinion the greater part of these *paribhâṣas*, or general maxims intended to assist

a correct interpretation of Pāṇini's rules, commented upon by Nāgoji, must, either consciously or unconsciously, have been adopted already by Pāṇini, and must therefore be adopted also by us, when we wish to explain and apply the rules of that great grammarian, and to ascertain the value and accuracy of their traditional interpretation.

To his excellent edition of Varāhamihira's *Bṛhat-Saṃhitā* Professor H. Kern, of Leyden, has added another important astronomical text, viz. the *Āryabhaṭīya*, together with the comment of Paramāśīvara. The author, Āryabhaṭa, was born, as he himself states in a couplet of the second chapter, in the year of the Kaliyuga corresponding with A.D. 476.

Dr. G. Bühler has brought out, in the Bombay Sanskrit Series, the first part of his long-expected critical edition of Daṇḍin's *Doṣakumāracharita*.

The examination of private collections of Sanskrit and Prākṛit MSS. in the Northern Division of the Bombay Presidency has been carried on by the same scholar with very marked success. Two years ago Dr. Bühler announced in the *Indian Antiquary* the recovery of two Prākṛit glossaries of considerable importance, viz. the *Deśikabhaṣa-grāha* of Hemachandra, and the *Pañcāśatnamālika*, the former with the Sanskrit equivalents. Since then a second MS. of the latter work has been discovered by him, whilst of the former work as many as six copies have already come to light. Of an important grammatical work, the *Gaṇarāsa-makodadhī*, two incomplete copies exist in England—one belonging to the Society's collection, the other to the India Office Library. For many years the late Professor Goldstücker in vain exerted himself to obtain another copy from India. Since his death no less than three copies of the work have been discovered by Dr. Bühler. These, however, are only a few of the many important accessions of scarce or hitherto unknown works for which scholars are indebted to Dr. Bühler and to the Bombay Government, which has hitherto so liberally encouraged his researches.

Pāli.—By his admirable sketch of Pāli grammar, Dr. E. W. A. Kuhn, of Leipzig, has supplied a long-felt want. Dr. Kuhn, like most other European scholars, rejects the identification of the Pāli with the Māgadhī, or dialect of Magadha, and, on the strength of its very marked similarity to the language of the Girnār Aśoka inscription, takes, with Professor Westergaard, the dialect of Ujjayini to have been its chief source.

Mr. V. Fausbøll, of Copenhagen, is now engaged in bringing out a complete edition of the *Jātaka*s, with the commentary, the first part of which has already appeared. The usefulness of the work will be greatly enhanced by a translation which Pro-

fessor R. C. Childers is now preparing for press. The second and concluding part of Professor Childers's excellent Pāli Dictionary is also making rapid progress, and will probably be ready for publication in the course of next month.

Sir Mutu Kumāra Svāmī has published a translation of the *Sutta Nipāta*, or discourses of Gautama Buddha, considered as part of the Buddhist Canon; and the Pāli text and a translation of the *Dāthadunāsa*, or history of the sacred tooth.

Pahlavi.—To their edition of the *Arđā Virf* and two other Pahlavi texts Dr. E. W. West and Professor M. Haug have now added a complete glossary, arranged according to the order of the Pahlavi letters, together with an alphabetical index, in the Roman character, to the transliterations adopted in the glossary.

Under the auspices of the Sir Jamsetji Jeebhoy Fund, Destur Behramji Sanjāna has brought out the first volume of an edition of the *Diakard*, both in the original Pahlavi text, and a transliteration in the Zend character, together with Gujarātī and English translations, and a glossary of select terms.

Arabic.—Professor E. Sachau's English translation of *Al-Bīrūnī's Athār al-Bakīd*, to the publication of which the remainder of the funds of the Oriental Translation Committee will be devoted, is making satisfactory progress.

Professor J. de Goeje has brought out, from a Leyden manuscript, perhaps the only one in existence, a beautiful edition of the *Dīwan* of Abū'l-Walid Moslim ibn al-Walid al-Anṣārī, together with an Arabic commentary, and explanatory notes. The exact age of the poet is not known; but M. De Goeje supposes that he was probably born between 130 and 140 A.H. The same industrious scholar has issued the fifth volume of the Catalogue of Oriental MSS. at Leyden. The two preceding volumes had been prepared by him in conjunction with M. De Jong, whilst vols. i. and ii. were published by Professor Dozy.

Professor W. Wright has brought out a new revised and enlarged edition of his Arabic Grammar, and the tenth and eleventh parts of his edition of the *Kimāli* of Al-Mubarrad, the latter of which is printed at the expense of the German Oriental Society.

Professor E. H. Palmer, of Cambridge, has likewise published an Arabic Grammar in which the arrangement of native grammarians has been adopted to a great extent.

Of M. R. Boucher's text and translation of the *Dīwan* of Ferizdak, published from a manuscript at Constantinople, the third part has appeared during the past year.

Since the last anniversary meeting, M. Barbier de Meynard has brought out the eighth volume of his edition and translation of *Masudi*. To the *Journal Asiatique* for 1874 the same scholar has contributed a highly interesting essay on the Shiite poet Abu-Hashem, generally called Seld Himyari, who was probably born A.H. 10 (A.D. 728-29).

Himyaritic.—M. J. Halévy has continued, in the *Journal Asiatique*, his *Études Sabéennes*, containing some further explanations of the valuable collection of inscriptions brought home by him.

Dr. F. Prætorius also has issued the third part of his contributions to the interpretation of Himyaritic inscriptions, in which six of M. Halévy's inscriptions are dealt with.

CORRESPONDENCE AND MISCELLANEA.

MALABAR CHRISTIANS.

To the Editor of the "Indian Antiquary."

SIR,—In the *Indian Antiquary* for June (vol. VI. p. 183) Dr. Burnell answers some remarks of mine on "Manichæans on the Malabar Coast," printed at p. 153, and I observe that he represents my argument as being "disfigured by several misunderstandings" of the books I quote. This, I wish to show, is not the case.

1. And first with regard to the account of Pantænus:—I accept Dr. Burnell's criticism in so far as it points out an inadvertence on my part. I regret that I wrote "Pantænus speaks," instead of "Pantænus is reported to have said," and that I have spoken curtly of his mention of "an Apostle." The fact is I had so fully discussed elsewhere (*Missionary Enterprise in the East*, pp. 66-73) Eusebius's account of Pantænus's visit to India, his finding a Hebrew Gospel of St. Matthew, and a report of a visit of "one of the Apostles," whom Eusebius states to have been Bartholomew, but whom I supposed, for reasons there stated, to have been, possibly, not Bartholomew,* but Thomas, that in the short space of a letter, and the cursory summing up of a number of facts, I simply stated the result as presented to my memory, instead of quoting the *ipsissima verba* of Eusebius. But though I have inadvertently made Pantænus speak, instead of Eusebius for him, his testimony through Eusebius is still virtually what I stated, as to the existence in India of a Hebrew Gospel of St. Matthew in the second century, and the visit of "an Apostle," whoever that Apostle may really have been: for were it indeed Bartholomew who visited India, he was still an Apostle.

2. Again, with regard to the history of the Pahlavi language, I can only suppose Dr. Burnell has an earlier edition of Max Müller's *Lectures on the Science of Language* than my own. In the 6th edition (Dr. Burnell quotes the 5th), vol. I. page

242, I read, "This language (the Pehlvi), though mixed with Iranian words, is decidedly Semitic, and is now supposed to be the continuation of an Aramaean dialect spoken in the ancient empire of Assyria, though not the dialect of the Assyrian inscriptions. Formerly, Pehlvi was considered as a dialect that had arisen on the frontiers of Irân and Chaldaea, in the first and second centuries of our era—a dialect Iranian in grammatical structure, though considerably mixed with Semitic vocables. Later researches, however, have shown that this is not the case, and that the language of the Sassanian coins and inscriptions is purely Aramaic." I have not, therefore, misunderstood Max Müller. Nor am I yet aware that I am "utterly wrong" in what I have said as to the probability of the Pahlavi language having been known in the north of the Persian empire, and even at Edessa.

3. With regard to the "Syrian documents," which I have "not quoted with precision," I thought that they were pretty well known to every one interested in the history of the Syrian Christians of Malabar. These documents are the accounts the priests themselves possess of their early history. Translations of portions of two of them I have myself published (*Missionary Enterprise in the East*, pp. 68-72). Extracts from them are also to be found in other books. Whether these documents be regarded as throughout historically valuable or not, it is at least remarkable that they connect Malabar with Edessa. For instance, in one of them we read as follows:—"Now in those days there appeared a vision to an archpriest at Urahâi (Edessa), in consequence whereof certain merchants were sent from Jerusalem by command of the Catholic authorities in the East to see whether there were here any Nazarenes or Christians."* * * * "After this, several priests, students, and Christian women and children came

* I have stated in *Missionary Enterprise in the East* that "the name of Bartholomew nowhere occurs, either in tradition or church history, except in that one passage of Eusebius, and a passage in Socrates, which is manifestly a mere echo of it." There is, however, an apocryphal account called the *Martyrdom of Bartholomew*, of much

later date, and which coincides in a great measure with what Pseudo-Abdias says of him: but its placing his sphere in India may be simply again a mere echo of Eusebius's passage which is under consideration. There is not a word as to Bartholomew's being in India in Dr. Cureton's *Syriac Documents* referred to below.

hither from Bagdad, Nineveh, and Jerusalem by order of the Catholic archpriest at Urahâi, arriving in the year of the Messiah 745 in company with the merchant Thomas." I am not without warrant, then, for connecting the early Syrian Church in Malabar with Edessa. Why do the priests cherish this tradition, and why do they retain the ancient name of Edessa, Urahâi or Urhoi,—a name known now to only a few scholars—if there is no foundation for their statement?

4. To return to Eusebius's account of Pantænus, Dr. Burnell revives an objection, which has been used only too often and too recklessly—by Dr. Barton amongst others—as a leaping-pole for historical obstacles, that "India was in the early centuries A.D. the name of nearly the whole East, including China." This statement has a foundation of truth: but to use it whenever the name India is mentioned by early historians is simply to sweep India out of the argument by a *petitio principii*. According to this argument Megasthenes, for instance, though he called his book *Indica*, may have visited Fuh-chau. The same argument may be used as successfully against Al Nadîm's account of Manes as against Eusebius's account of Pantænus.

Further, Dr. Burnell disputes the evidence of Eusebius about Pantænus on the ground that it is "late hearsay," and therefore "valueless for truth." If this canon, again, is to be applied in so unreserved and sweeping a sense in our judgment of the statements of history, it is astonishing how much will appear to us "valueless for truth": history must then be rewritten, and in a very small volume too. How many, for instance, of Cicero's charming anecdotes must be expunged; everything introduced by *fertur* or *dicitur*, or *sæpe audiri* or *accepimus*, must be regarded as either "pious" or impious "fictions." Surely we must be allowed some discrimination. When "hearsay" is really "late hearsay," and when the thing related is an improbable account of some obscure person, or wants collateral evidence of its truth, we may indeed justly doubt. But Pantænus was not so obscure a person that Eusebius is likely to have made a mistake about his journeys. One thing, at least, is clear, namely, that Clemens Alexandrinus, the pupil and immediate successor of Pantænus in the chair of the Catechetical school at Alexandria, was pretty well versed in Indian matters, which he is generally supposed to have learned from Pantænus. He knew enough to write as follows:—"The Indian Gymnosophists are also in the number, and

the other barbarian philosophers, and of these there are two classes, some of them called Sarmana,* and others Brahmins. And those of the Sarmana who are called Hylobii (ὕλοβιοι) † neither inhabit cities, nor have roofs over them, but are clothed in the bark of trees, feed on nuts, and drink water in their hands. Like those called Encratites in the present day, they know not homage nor the begetting of children. Some too of the Indians obey the precepts of Buddha (Βούδδα), whom, on account of his extraordinary sanctity, they have raised to divine honours." Clemens was also acquainted with the then extant writings of Megasthenes, as further on he says, "The author Megasthenes, the contemporary of Seleukos Nikator, writes as follows in the third of his books, on *Indian affairs*:—'All that was said about nature by the ancients is said also by those who philosophize beyond grace: some things by the Brahmins among the Indians, and others by those called Jews in Syria'" (*Clem. Stromata*, I. 15, translated in the *Ante-Nicene Christian Library*, vol. IV, pp. 398, 399). India, then, was pretty well known and understood in Alexandria in the time of Clemens; and Eusebius, of whom it is said that "he knew all that had been written before him," must have been a more obtuse, ignorant, or careless man than we generally give him credit for if, with the *Stromata* of Clemens before his eyes, he could make a mistake as to when and what India was, and as to where Pantænus went. Moreover, I would venture to ask, is it fair to say that Eusebius's testimony as to the journeying of Pantænus is founded on late hearsay, when Clemens died in A.D. 220 and Eusebius was born in 264? Indeed it is far from improbable that Clemens, who scarcely ever seems to have been without a pen in his hand and who wrote in his *Stromata*, "My memoranda are stored up against old age, as a remedy against forgetfulness, truly an image and outline of those vigorous and animated discourses which I was privileged to hear, and of blessed and truly remarkable men," amongst which remarkable men he apparently placed Pantænus first (see *Clem. Stromata*, bk. 1. ch. 1)—it is, I say, far from improbable that Clemens left notes, in addition to what we find in the *Stromata*, of Pantænus's account of India, and that from those notes Eusebius drew his information.

5. Dr. Burnell remarks that Eusebius's account of Pantænus "says nothing about Thomas." This is true. But it says something about Christians having the original Hebrew version of St. Matthew's Gospel in the second century in some part of India, and that before Manes had come

* श्रमण.

† वान प्रस्थ.

into existence; and my object is not *primarily* to contend that St. Thomas came to India—though I have something more to say about that too—but that the early Christian sects were orthodox, and not Gnostic or Manichean, as Dr. Burnell supposes. All that I maintain about St. Thomas is that there is *better* evidence that he was the first missionary than that the heresiarch Manes, or any follower of his, founded sects which have since become Christian. Let us observe that the fact that Eusebius mentions the existence of a Hebrew Gospel of St. Matthew among the Christians whom Pantaenus visited in India furnishes very strong presumptive evidence that his story is true. For the earliest Gospel, used by what has been called the "Hebrew party" in the Church, as distinguished from the "Hellenic party," was this very original Hebrew, or Syro-Chaldee, version of St. Matthew; and if one of the Twelve, or any of their immediate disciples, visited India, this is the Gospel they would be certain to bring. (See this subject of the Hebrew Gospel ably handled in the *Edinburgh Review* for April 1875, in a critique on *Supernatural Religion*.) Of course we have no certain proof that the Christians Pantaenus found were in Malabar, and not in Arabia, Abyssinia, or China, all which places went equally under the denomination of India in the time of Eusebius, according to Dr. Barton and Dr. Burnell. But there is a presumption of tolerable stability that they were somewhere in India. And we have proof in the evidence of Cosmas Indicopleustes, evidence which I am happy to find is accepted by Dr. Burnell, that there were Christians in the 6th century in Malabar. And as the church found by Cosmas was evidently the same that still exists in Malabar, there is little difficulty in believing that the Christians Pantaenus met in the second century were their forefathers. The Christians reported on by Cosmas were not Manicheans, or he would not have spoken of them as "faithful," nor would he have found a "Bishop," who had been "consecrated in Persia." If Pantaenus came across the same church, the members of that church were orthodox in the second century.

6. Dr. Burnell seems to "have strong impressions" as well as myself. His last impression appears to be that unorthodox Persian settlers, i.e. Manicheans or Gnostics, used the Pahlavi language in Malabar till the ninth century, and that then Nestorian missionaries converted them, through the instrumentality, at least partly, of the Pahlavi language, which they retained, although it had died

out in Persia. But how does this coincide with Cosmas's evidence in the sixth century? He, being a Nestorian, would not have taken Gnostics or Manicheans for orthodox Christians. And that Nestorians in the ninth century should have written Inscriptions at Kottayam in a language they did not know, is not, surely, so likely as that orthodox Christians from Persia should have written them during the Pahlavi period. There is no reason why men knowing the Pahlavi language should have been Gnostics or Manicheans, and not Christians.

And when I find the Syrians connecting their early history with that of Edessa: when I find Cosmas reporting the existence of a Bishop in Malabar in the sixth century, consecrated in Persia: when I find in the Council of Nicea, in A.D. 325, a Bishop signing himself "Metropolitan of Persia and the Great India": when I find Pantaenus—not speaking—but being spoken of as having found a Gospel of St. Matthew somewhere in India in the second century—I think I have some ground for an impression that there was orthodox Christianity somewhere in India between the 6th and 2nd centuries, and also some grounds for suspecting that was Malabar. And when I am told by Dr. Burnell that he has found a Pahlavi Inscription to the Trinity at Kottayam, I seem to connect that in the most natural way, in my own mind, with the story of Edessa in the Syrian legends, and the Indo-Persian Bishops of Cosmas and the Nicene Council.

In opposition to this, and in support of the supposed fact that there were only Persian Gnostics or Manicheans in Malabar for eight centuries, Dr. Burnell adduces the following statements:—that "Al Nadīm says that Māni 'called on' Hind, Sia, and the people of Khorāsān, and 'made a deputy of one of his companions in each province': that Manes wrote an *Epistle to the Indians*: that the Arab geographer Abū Saïd says of Ceylon, 'There is a numerous colony of Jews in Sarandib, and people of other religions, especially Manicheans: that there is a place in Malabar called *Manigramam*, where Iravi Korttan settled: and, in fact, though not in so many words, that no one knew Pahlavi among the Persian settlers but Gnostics and Manicheans; of which it may be briefly remarked that the coupling of Khorāsān with Hind would seem to draw one's attention to the north of India: that no result of Manes's preaching or *Epistle* remains in India either now or in history, though Christians still owning the Eutychian Patriarch of Antioch do remain: that the Manicheans* of Ceylon were, as I

* The epithet Manichean, in and about the ninth century, was not merely used, as Dr. Burnell supposes, by one sect of Christians in abusing another; but it was a term

that had got to be used indiscriminately for any Christians who were not at the feet of the great Bishop of Rome.

have before shown, not improbably Christians; and that the *Mānigrāmakaṛ** bore no resemblance whatever to Manichæans.

In short I most confidently place against the one real historical notice on which Dr. Burnell lays so much stress, namely, Al Nadim's statement that Manes "called on Hind and Sin, and the people of Khorāsān," Eusebius's account of Pantænus, which is equally worthy of credit, and which, moreover, is backed by Cosmas's testimony in the 6th century, and the existence of Christians now.

Lastly, with regard to the statement by the Syrians of Travancore as to the connection of the Apostle Thomas with the early Indian Church, I do not claim for it absolute historical certainty; but I do claim for it a place above the region of mere "pious fictions." In the first place, if it be a fiction, that fiction certainly existed in the fourth century; for the *Acts of Thomas*, to which Dr. Burnell refers, is mentioned by Epiphanius, who was made Bishop of Salamis about A.D. 368. The original version of the *Acts of Thomas* is attributed by Photius to Leucius Charinus: though I am quite willing to accept Dr. Haug's theory, as stated by Dr. Burnell, that it was written by Bardesanes about the end of the second century. This gives it a considerable antiquity. Now, in all the Apocryphal Gospels and Acts there is a certain groundwork of historical truth. This was necessary to obtain credit for the fabulous superstructure. The object of the writer was to impose upon his readers some new doctrine, in most cases the worship of the Virgin Mary, celibacy, or some other practice contrary to apostolic teaching. Hence he took historical names well known in the Church, and their prominent historical surroundings, especially where they lived and where they went. For instance, in the *Prot-Evangelium of James*, among abundant fables, we find the historical facts of Herod, the Magi, Bethlehem; the ox-stall, &c. So in the *Gospel of the Pseudo-Matthew*, such facts as the enrolment at Bethlehem, the departure to Egypt, the return to Judæa, and the home in Galilee are the historical groundwork. In the same way, with regard to the *Acts of Thomas*, while the main object of the writer is evidently to inculcate the doctrine of celibacy, and while he is profuse in fable, and even indecency, to gain his point, he must have some historical groundwork to obtain credit for his story; and there is the highest probability that the groundwork he studiously took was not only the correct name of the Apostle, Judas Thomas,

but, as in the case of pseudo-apostolic histories of Christ, the correct mention *geographically* of his sphere. The writer had nothing to gain in sending the Apostle to India, but much to gain if the Apostle whose name he forged was well known, at the time he wrote, as having been the Apostle of India.

Nor, it should be well observed, is there any the least antecedent improbability of the truth of the Apostle's mission. The Apostles, one and all, were commissioned by a Master, whose words they were not likely to forget, to "go into all the world." And assuredly, endowed, as they were, with the "gift of tongues" for this especial work, they could not tarry at home.

If, then, the author of the *Acts of Thomas* gives us the right clue to the Apostle's sphere, all subsequent accounts are in harmony:—the testimony of the Syriac document on *The Teaching of the Apostles*, which was brought to light by Dr. Cureton, and is most probably of the Ante-Nicene age, in which we read—"India . . . received the apostles' ordination to the priesthood from Judas Thomas, who was guide and ruler in the Church which he had built there, [in which] he also ministered there" (*Ante-Nicene Library*, vol. xx.):—the testimony of Eusebius:—the testimony of Alfred's ambassadors to the shrine of Thomas:—the testimony of the Syrians themselves:—and the connection of the Syrians of Malabar with the Christians of Edessa, of which church St. Thomas is said to have been the first apostolic overseer and director (*Ante-Nicene Library*, vol. xx. *Syriac Documents*, p. 6).

I apologize for the length of my letter. I have felt it incumbent upon me to give authorities at length. And if I have added nothing new, I am more ambitious to be correct than original.

RICHARD COLLINS, M.A.

Kandy, Ceylon, 23rd June 1875.

SANSKRIT MSS.

From Dr. Bühler's *Report on Sanskrit MSS.*, 1874-75, we extract the following details:—

Among the Brāhmanical MSS. purchased is the *Bhāratamanjarī*, a poetical epitome of the *Mahābhārata*. It closely follows the divisions of its original, and is divided into the same number of Parvas. Its metre is the Anuṣṭubh śloka. The author, Kshemendra, appears to be the poet who wrote the epitome of the *Vyākhaṇakā* of Guṇādhya, as his surname Vyāsa-pāda shows that he was a Bhāgavata. The MS. was acquired in Bhāj. It is about three hundred years old and tolerably correct.

* If the name *Mānigrāmakaṛ* be spelt more correctly with the dental than with the cerebral *ṃ* (Dr. Burnell spells it with the latter), then in the purest and most primitive Tamil it would describe a village ceded as a free gift by royalty. It may therefore have first received its name

when ceded to Iravi Kottan, if it had not the same previously (as I myself at present think) as a Brāhman village. Certainly the *Mānigrāmakaṛ* were Brāhmanas, according to Mr. Whitehouse's account, whether converts or not. They were, however, in some way connected with the Syrian Church.

The *Naishadīyadīpikā* is one of the oldest commentaries on Śrīharsha's epic which has become known. Its author, Chāpāpāṇḍita, the son of Āliga, was a Nāgara Brāhmaṇ of Dholkā, near Ahmadābād. He states that he composed poetry, officiated as priest at many great sacrifices, studied Sāṅkhya philosophy, and wrote a commentary on the *R̥igveda*. His teachers were Vaidyanātha and Narasiṃha; the *Naishadīya* he learned from one Munideva, apparently a Jaina Yati. He asserts that before his time only one commentary on the *Naishadīya* existed, composed by Vidyādhara (*alias* Sāhityavidhyādhara, *alias* Chārītravardhanamuni) of which I have found fragments in Ahmadābād and in Jesalmīr. He partly confirms the story of the Jaina author Rājasekhara, who places Śrīharsha under Jayantachandra or Jayachandra of Kānoj at the end of the 12th century. He also calls the *Naishadīya* "navam kāvyam, a modern poem." Chāpāpāṇḍita gives as the date of his own work the 15th day of Śuklapakṣa Bhādrapada of the year 1513 according to Vikrama's era, or 1456-7 A.D. When he wrote, Sānga was chief of Dholkā, and Mādhava his minister. Chāpā's younger brother Tālhaṇa revised and corrected the book. The MS. bears two dates, 1473 (at the end of canto xxii.) and 1476 (at the end of canto ii.), and consists of four pieces, which, however, have been written by the same writer, a Vaiś called Nārāyaṇa, the son of Bhābhala. The dates refer, no doubt, to the Śaka era. I received the MS. from Gandevī, in the Gaikvād's territory.

The *Yudhishtīra-vijaya*, or 'victory of Yudhishtīra,' is another novelty. It belongs to the numerous compositions which are based on legends taken from the *Mahābhārata*. It contains eight Āśvāsas. The end of the first canto is gone. The second contains the sports of Kṛishṇa and Arjuna (*Kṛishṇārjunavibhāvarāga*), the third 'the departure to the forest' (*vanavāsagamana*), the fourth 'the battle between Kīrītā and Arjuna' (*kīrītārjunayuddhavarāga*), the fifth 'the death of Kichaka' (*kichakavādha*), the sixth 'the peace-proposals' (*samavarāga*), the seventh 'the defeat of the Kauravas,' and the eighth 'the victory of Yudhishtīra over Duryodhana.' The work is written in the Āryāgīti metre, and each half-verse is adorned with a Yamaka or rhyme of four syllables. Its literary value is about the same as that of the *Nalodaya*. Its author is not named. One of my Śāstrīs told me that he had heard it mentioned by his teacher as an old and rare work. The *Bhājavinoda*, 'the amusement of the king,' or *Jarabakshapadāsādhīrīnāhamādasuratrāṇacharita*, 'the life of Sultan Mahmūd' (Bīgādhā of Ah-

madābād), by Udayarāja, is quite a literary curiosity.

The author, who declares himself to be the son of Prayāgadāsa and the pupil of Rāmādāsa, celebrates Mahmūd, popularly reputed to have been the most violent persecutor of Hindus and Hinduism, as if he were an orthodox Hindu king. He calls him the 'crest-jewel of the royal race' (*raja-vyachūdāmani*) as if he were a Kshatriya, and he asserts that Śrī and Sarasvatī attend on his footsteps, that he surpasses Karpā in liberality, and that his ancestor *Muzaffar Khān* assisted *Kṛishṇa* against *Kālī*. The *Charita* is divided into seven Sargas. The first (śloka 29), entitled 'Surendra's and Sarasvatī's colloquy' (*surendrasarasvatīsūvāda*), is introductory, and relates how Brahma sent Indra to look after Sarasvatī, and found her in the halls of Mahmūd Shāh, and how she sang the praises of Mahmūd. The second (*varāṇasakīrtana*, śloka 31) gives the genealogy of Mahmūd, beginning with Muzaffar Khān. The statements made appear to be historically correct. The third (*sabha-samāgama*, śloka 33) describes Mahmūd's entry into the darbār hall. The fourth (*sarvadeva*, śloka 35) relates what princes and people there received in darbār. The fifth (*savītarangaprasanga*, śloka 35), describes a *vach* given by the Sultān. The sixth (*vijayayātrāroṣa*, śloka 36) and the seventh (*vijayalakṣmīlīlā*, śloka 37) are devoted to a rhapsodic description of Mahmūd's warlike exploits. The frequent allusions to the Pādishāh's liberality make it probable that the author either had received or hoped to receive *dashkā* from him.

The *Dharmapradīpa* is not identical with the *Bhojasmṛiti*, stated to be one of the works of Bhoja of Dhārā. It was written at the order of Bhoja, the son of Bhāramalla, who ruled over Kachh some centuries ago. This king is the same to whom the *Bhojavyākhyana* of Vinayasāgara, which occurs in my *Catalogue of MSS. from Gujarat*, is dedicated. The *Dharmapradīpa* treats of Āchāra, or the rule of conduct, only. The MS. comes from Kachh.

The *Nārada-smṛitībhāṣya* of Kalyāṇabhaṭṭa is the most important acquisition of the year among the works on Dharma. It gives a full explanation of the first eight Adhyāyas of the *Smṛiti*, and helps greatly to settle the text of this interesting but difficult law-book, of which very few copies are procurable. Kalyāṇa says in the introductory verses that his work is based on an older but corrupt commentary.* The MS. has been written in Banāras, and has been procured from the library of the Rājā of Bundi through the kind offices of the Asst. Political in charge of Harauti.

* *Drishyadevādhārayachaitān nāradaśāstrīyān kulekhakāirbhāṣakān kalyāṇena kṛiyate prāktanameva tadāśādhya paṇaḥ.*

Two copies of the old *Dharmasūtra* of Vāsishtha are complete and very correct. The first was presented to me by Professor Bālasāstri of Banāras College, and the second by Dāmodara Śāstri of Bhūj. Like all similar presents, I accepted them for Government.

A large fragment of the ancient *Gārgī Sāhita* first discovered by Dr. Kern and described in the preface to his edition of the *Vāṛhi Sāhita*.

No. 37. The *Panchasiddhantikā* of Varāhamihira is one of those rare works which have been sought after for a long time. The copy which I have procured is a transcript made from a MS. belonging to Sadārāma Joshi of Sojitrā, who was good enough to lend me his copy for some time. The original is unfortunately so incorrect that it is hardly possible even to make out the general drift. The work is a *karāṇa* which gives the substance of five older works, the *Siddhāntas* ascribed to Pauliśa, Romaka, Vāsishtha, Sūrya, and Pitāmaha. It is written in the Āryā metre, and contains, I suppose, 18 Adhyāyas. The first, called *karāṇadāntā* (śloka 25), contains the well-known verses giving the details about the older *Siddhāntas* (vs. 2-4) and the date Śaka 427, which forms the base of the subsequent calculations (v. 8). Next follow 83 verses which are not divided into Adhyāyas, but at the end of which are placed the words *chandragrahanāṁ ekaśoḍhaśādyāḥ*, 'eclipses of the moon,' Adhyāya VI. The following Adhyāyas appear to be in good order. They are Adhyāya VII., eclipses of the sun according to Pauliśa, *iti pauliśasiddhānta varigrahanāṁ saptaśoḍhaśādyāḥ* (śloka 6); Adhyāya VIII., eclipses of the sun according to Romaka, *iti romakasiddhānta varigrahanāṁ aṣṭaśoḍhaśādyāḥ* (śloka 18); Adhyāya IX., eclipses of the sun according to Sūrya, *sūryasiddhānta varigrahanāṁ pitarāśoḍhaśādyāḥ* (śloka 22); Adhyāya X., eclipses of the moon, *chandragrahanāṁ daśaśoḍhaśādyāḥ* (śloka 7); Adhyāya XI., *Avarganādyekādaśaśoḍhaśādyāḥ* (śloka 6); Adhyāya XII., Lunar and Solar years according to Pitāmaha, *iti pitāmasiddhānta trayodaśaśoḍhaśādyāḥ* (śloka 5); Adhyāya XIII., the order of the Universe, *trailokyasamsthānāṁ nama trayodaśaśoḍhaśādyāḥ* (śloka 40). In this chapter occurs (v. 6) the refutation of the opinion of those who hold that the earth moves:—

Bhramanti bhramasūteva kṣitirityapare vadan, ti nodagayāḥ |

Yadyevaṁ bhedādya na kṣatīṇaṁ svanīlayama-peyaḥ ||

*Others contend that the earth standing as it were in an eddy turns round, not the crowd of the stars. If that were the case, falcons and other (birds) could not return from the sky to their nests."

Adhyāya XIV. describes the Chedyakayantras (śloka 58).

Adhyāya XV. is called the Jyotishopanishat (v. 13).

Adhyāya XVI. contains the correction of the position of the stars and planets, *śodagrahaṣṭa-ḥṣṭaśoḍhaśādyāḥ* (śloka 28).

After these follow seventy-eight ślokas without any division, and the conclusion of the whole is *ityādhyavardhamirakratyāḥ panchasiddhantikā samāptā* (sic).

Sadārāma Joshi states he obtained his MS. from Banāras, and that better copies and a commentary are to be had there.

No. 38 is a manual for indigenous school masters. Its author, Kahamendra, was the son of Bhādhara, a Nāgara Brāhmaṇ of Rājānagara, and wrote his treatise by order of Śankarālāla, Chief of Pīlād (Pīlād, MS.).

5 Among the Jaina books two deserve special notice. The first is the nearly complete copy of the *Trishastīśākhāpuruṣacharita* (bought in Bhūj), which contains also the life of Mahāvīra, the reputed founder of Jainism. It gives a great many hitherto unknown details regarding the saint's life. The second remarkable acquisition is the old copy of the *Pāṇinīyāśāstramāṇḍikā*. This MS. is correct and accurate. I have already published a note regarding it in the *Indian Antiquary*,* and have shown that the author's name was *Dharmapala*. An edition of the book has been prepared; I shall print it, as well as Hemachandra's *Doṣikōsha*, as soon as I find a little of that leisure and quiet which are absolutely necessary for serious work of the kind.

SUFI MANZALS.

In his popular "Notes on Mahomedanism" in the *Christian Intelligencer*, the Rev. T. P. Hughes has already described at length the different classes of Musalmān faqirs, together with their doctrines. He next proceeds to notice the system of Oriental mysticism, as taught by the Sufi sect. Sufism appears to be but the Muslim adaptation of the doctrines of the philosophers of the *Vādānta* school, which we also find in the writings of the old Academics of Greece, and which Sir W. Jones thinks Plato learned from the sages of the East. In Sufism the disciple (*murīd*) is invited to proceed on the journey (*tarīqat*) under the guidance of a spiritual leader (*murshīd*), who must be considered superior to any other human being. The great business of the traveller (*sālik*) is to exert himself and strive to attain to the Divine Light, and to go on to the knowledge of God. God, according to the Sufi belief, is diffused throughout all things; and the soul of man is part of God, and not from Him. The soul of man is an exile from its Crea-

tor, and human existence is its period of banishment. The object of Sufism is to lead the soul onward stage by stage, until it reaches the goal—"perfect knowledge." The natural state of every Muslim is *Nasut*, in which state the disciple must observe the precepts of the law, or *Shariat*; but as this is the lowest form of spiritual existence, the performance of the journey is enjoined on every searcher after truth.

The following are the stages (*mansal*) which the Sufi has to perform. Having become a searcher after God (a *Talib*), he enters the first stage of *Abudiyyat*, or Service. When the Divine attraction has developed his inclination into the love of God, he is said to have reached the second stage of *Ishag*, or Love. This Divine Love expelling all worldly desires from his heart, he arrives at the third stage of *Zuhd*, or Seclusion. Occupying himself henceforward with contemplation and the investigations of the metaphysical theories concerning the nature, attributes, and works of God, which are the characteristics of the Sufi system, he reaches the fourth stage of *Ma'rifat*, or Knowledge. This assiduous contemplation of metaphysical theories soon produces a state of mental excitement, which is considered a sure prognostication of direct illumination from God. This fifth stage is called *Wajd*, or Ecstasy. During the next stage he is supposed to receive a revelation of the true nature of the Godhead, and to have reached the sixth stage, *Haqiqat*, or the Truth. The next stage is that of *Wasl*, or Union with God, which is the highest stage to which he can go whilst in the body; but when death overtakes him, it is looked upon as a total re-absorption into the deity, forming the consummation of his journey, and the eighth and last stage, of *Fana*, or Extinction. That stage in which the traveller is said to have attained to the Love of God is the point from which the Sufistic poets love to discuss the doctrines of their sect. The Salik or Traveller is the Lover (*Ashag*), and God is the Beloved One (*Ma-shuk*). This Divine love is the theme of most of the Persian and Pashtu poems, which abound in Sufistic expressions which are difficult of interpretation to an ordinary English reader. For instance, *Sharaab*, wine, expresses the domination of Divine love in the heart. *Gism*, a ringlet, the details of the mysteries of Divinity. *Mai Khana*, a tavern, a stage of the journey. Mirth, Wantonness, and Inebriation signify religious enthusiasm and abstraction from worldly things.

The eight stages we have given are those usually taught by Sufi teachers in their published works, but in North India Mr. Hughes has frequently met with persons of this sect who have learnt only the four following stages:—The first,

Nasut, or humanity, for which there is the *Shariat*, or law. The second, *Malakut*, or the nature of angels, for which there is *Tariqat*, or the pathway of purity. The third, *Jabrut*, or the possession of power, for which there is *Ma'rifat*, or knowledge. And the fourth, *Sakut*, or extinction, for which there is *Haqiqat*, or truth.

CAPE COMORIN OR KUMÂRÎ.

"Fra Paolino, in his unsatisfactory way (*Viaggio alle Indie*, p. 68), speaks of Cape Comorin, "which the Indians call *Canyamuri*, *Virginis Promontorium*, or simply *Comari* or *Cumari*, 'a Virgin,' because they pretend that anciently the goddess *Comari*, 'the Damsel,' who is the Indian *Diana* or *Hecate*, used to bathe," &c. However, we can discover from his book elsewhere (see pp. 79, 285) that by the Indian *Diana* he means *Pârvati*, i.e. *Durgâ*.—Yule's *Marco Polo*, vol. II. p. 552.

Mr. Talboys Wheeler, in his *History of India* (vol. III. p. 386), says the *Kumâri* was the infant babe exchanged for *Krishna*, apparently because the temple at the Cape was built by *Krishna Râja* of *Narsinga*, a zealous *Vaishnava*,—forgetting, seemingly, that this was only a repair or reconstruction of a far older *Shaiva* edifice to *Kanyâ Kumâri*, the full vernacular name, and Fra Paolino's *Canyamuri*—who is no other than *Pârvati*.

The Rev. G. M. Gordon (C.M.S.), who has been making tours through the Jhelam district, says: "The villagers are a great mixture: Hindus, Sikhs, and Muhammadans, bound together by sympathy of race amid much diversity of creed. The Muhammadan (whose ancestors were Hindus) mingles freely in Hindu festivals, and salutes fakirs; while the Hindu shows no less respect for Muhammadan observances, and the boundary line between Sikhism and Brâhmanism is gradually diminishing. The outward harmony may be partly due to mutual dependence for the necessities of life, the cultivators being all Muhammadans, while the shopkeepers are mostly Hindus. Here, where the Muhammadans are in the majority, Hinduism appears under a very different garb from what one is accustomed to see in the South of India. There is none of that marked ascendancy of Brâhman over *Sûdra*; none of that shameless exhibition of wayside idols; no colossal temples like those of *Madura* and *Kanchveram*. The Hindu in these parts seems ashamed to confess to idolatry in the presence of a Muhammadan. His religious belief takes a more speculative turn, and he is generally a Vedantist or Pantheist. Among this class, and amongst the Muhammadan zamindârs, there is generally a willingness to listen to the preacher.

THE DELUGE.

The subjoined extract is taken from an unpublished translation of Albirûnî's *Athâr al-Bâkiya*, now in course of preparation for the Oriental Translation Fund by Dr. E. Sachau, Professor of Oriental Languages at Vienna:—

"The Persians and the great mass of the Magians deny the Deluge altogether; they believe that the rulership (of the world) has remained with them without any interruption ever since Gayô-marask, *Gilshakh*, who is, according to them, the first man. In denying the Deluge the Indians,

Chinese, and the various nations of the East concur with them. Some, however, of the Persians admit the fact of the Deluge, but account for it in another way, as it is described in the Books of the Prophets. They say a partial Deluge occurred in Syria and the West in the time of Tahmâ-rash, but that it did not extend over the whole of the then civilized world, and only a few nations were submerged in it. It did not extend beyond the Peak of Holwân, and did not reach the countries of the East."—E. THOMAS, in *The Academy*, 17th April 1875.

BOOK NOTICES.

CENSUS OF THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY taken on the 31st February 1872. Government Central Press, Bombay, 1875.

On a former occasion (*Ind. Ant.* vol. III. p. 331) we had occasion to notice the value of the Madras Census Report as a source of information upon many points interesting to readers of the *Antiquary*, and especially upon matters of ethnology. The three volumes now under review, though of about equal size, and referring to a population little more than half that of Madras, have taken a year longer to compile and publish; and now that we have them they are, we regret to say, almost valueless from this point of view.

The elaborate tables which set before the reader of Dr. Cornish's Report all possible statistics regarding the ethnology of the Madras Presidency are to be sought for in vain in Mr. Lumsdaine's compilation, though we are indeed furnished with many particulars in decimal fractions as to the various sects of Christians, which the changes of a single year will render as inaccurate as they are unimportant. Perhaps this is the less to be regretted as the little ethnological information contained in the Bombay Report is calculated chiefly to mislead. Take, for instance, page 103, where Mr. Lumsdaine informs us that "Aborigines do not need special notice." This is fortunate, for they certainly have not got it. In the table immediately below, the District of Khândesh is shown as having an aboriginal population of 122,092, Nâsik 115,910, Ahmadnagar 6,238, Panâ 192, Kâldgi 1, and the remaining districts of the Dekhan none at all. The rapid decrease in their numbers as we pass southwards would be remarkable to any one who did not know that the highlands of Ahmadnagar contain about 40 villages, and those of Panâ 199, almost exclusively inhabited by Kolis with a few Thâkars. It appears, from a passage on the same page relating to Nâsik, that Mr. Lumsdaine knows that Kolis are an aboriginal race, and that 68,302 of them

swell the total in that district; and the natural though totally false inference would be that there are none in Panâ or Ahmadnagar. Yet these Kolis might be considered worthy of some notice, if only for the fact that military aid has been required for the last fourteen months to keep them in order. Similarly, the number of aborigines given for Thâpâ is 25, and for Kulâbâ none. Even setting aside the coast Kolis as a doubtful race, the region (North Konkan) comprised in these two districts is one of the richest in aborigines in the whole Presidency, both for number and variety,—containing Kolis of the Hills, Warlis, Kâtkaris, Thâkars, &c. in such number that large tracts have hardly any other inhabitants. And so on through other districts. Yet knowledge on this subject was available, if only from the brief but valuable remarks of Dr. Wilson on page 111, though they are disfigured by the clumsy misprint of 'Kâlkari' for 'Kâtkari.'

Similarly, on the same page the point of a neat antithesis between 'Kshetrapati,' 'the owner of a field,' and 'Chhatrapati,' 'the lord of an umbrella,' has been improved by spelling both words the same way.

Instead, again, of the commentary rendered valuable by the research and acumen of Dr. Cornish, and by many extracts from the best authorities in Madras, we have in this Report only the one paragraph above mentioned from Dr. Wilson; a few pages extracted bodily from "Steele's *Castes of the Deccan*" (a good work, but old and not very practical); an account of the Swayamvara of Sanjogta Kumârî, Princess of Kanauj, from Mr. Talboys Wheeler's *History of India*; and some fine but vague writing of Mr. Lumsdaine's own about the early Aryans and a festival which he saw at "the castle of the Rahtor." He does not specify the name by which this castle is now known to mortals, but from the context it would

appear to be the palace of Jodhpūr, and further that Mr. Lumsdaine thinks that the famous Swayamvara took place there! The passage is so spirited and interesting that we give it at length, although it is hard to see what connection either the place or subject has with the census of the Bombay Presidency, except through the person of its compiler.

"Such tales" (viz. as the story of the Swayamvara) "find spell-bound listeners, and it has so chanced that I have read them. The castle of the Rahtor is no longer threatened; and it has been my good fortune to look down from its grim old towers, and by torchlight, upon a scene which as a scene was simply perfect. The occasion is an annual festival in honour of Māta Devī, whose wrath is to be so appeased, that the scourge of small-pox may be stayed for the coming year. Groups of girls dressed in every colour and every shade of colour pass up to the palace to receive the usual propitiatory offering and take it to the shrine of the goddess. There the most beautiful amongst them is chosen, and a lighted taper is given to her, and placing it in an earthen vessel she is to carry it to the king. If it reaches him alight it is a good omen, but if it be quenched it is a presage of evil—*quod Deus avertat!* The ceremony is of the simplest, but it is all that is left to them of pomp and power. The procession of the girls is itself the very poetry of colour, and with it come stately elephants in housings ablaze with gold and silver embroidery. From end to end the route is illuminated; the terraced roofs are crowded; each coin of vantage is occupied; and the street has a background of torchlit matchlocks and men, wildly effective, and between them is borne the sacred light.

"And then come the very flower of Rajpūt chivalry, splendidly dressed, superbly mounted; rich armour and jewelled plumes, inlaid shields, the burnished axe, the glittering mace, the pennoned lance; and everywhere the play of sword-blades. The picture is perfect, and carries one back to the Crusades, but it tells us that ages before the Crusades such arms were wielded by the ancestors of the men who now carry them."

We have the 'Buddhists', of course, 180,620 of them, in whom the public of Bombay will be surprised to recognize the familiar Mārvāḍī, with numbers eked out by certain Gujarāṭī Jains, and a few Southern Jains who are cultivators or small traders in the Dekhan and South Marāṭhā Country. As there is a good account of them at p. 83 (indeed the whole chapter on Religions is

the best in the Report), it may be presumed that this classification is used under orders from superior authority. It is scarcely necessary to say here that there is not an indigenous Buddhist in the Presidency.

To conclude: the orthography of the Report varies from the pure Jonesian of Dr. Wilson to the ugly but still systematic Gilchristian of Mr. Steele, with every possible form of intermediate bastard and barbarous kakography. This fault reaches its acme on the map, which has besides, on its own geographical account, the merit of putting Thānā on the mainland, and the source of the Ulās river under the Mālsēj Ghāt, with other new discoveries of the same sort "too numerous to mention."

THE PRINCIPLES OF COMPARATIVE PHILOLOGY. By A. H. SAYCE, Fellow and Tutor of Queen's College, Oxford. (London: Trübner and Co., 1874.) pp. 381.

Mr. Sayce is a zealous philologist who has already done excellent service, especially in the investigation of the Assyrian branch of Semitic. He is well entitled to an attentive hearing on the subject of Comparative Philology.

He characterizes his own work as "devoid of the graces of style," "rough-hewn," and "bristling with unsmooth words," and, so far as the matter of it is concerned, as being "critical" rather than "constructive."

We certainly cannot praise the style. Mr. Sayce is full of thought and knowledge; but he seems just to have tilted the water-jar on one side and allowed the stream to rush as best it might.

And Mr. Sayce is nothing if not critical. He has very strong convictions, and is ever bold in expressing them. No matter who crosses his path, *Tros Tyrinnse*, the corner is greeted with a war-whoop and a blow. We are glad that we are criticizing Mr. Sayce, instead of being criticized by him. We shall deal more mercifully by him than he would by us.

But, in fact, our work is exposition much rather than criticism. Mr. Sayce holds that one far-reaching error on the part of philologists has been the assumption that the Aryan family of language affords a complete solution of the problems of the science of language. We cannot admit that philologists have overlooked the Semitic tongues; but the tendency which Mr. Sayce thus states, and considerably overstates, does, to some extent, exist. He would give as an instance of such perilously rapid generalization the canon that the roots of all languages are monosyllabic.* This canon, he states, is set aside

* Does not Mr. Sayce, however, rather exaggerate the evil? We find in Prof. Whitney's *Life and Growth of Language* the following assertion regarding the large family

of Malayo-Polynesian dialects:—"The roots are preëminently dissyllabic" (p. 243).

by recent investigations into Accadian, as recovered from the cuneiform inscriptions of Babylon. Many of its roots are dissyllabic. Accadian is a very ancient Turanian speech,—older than the Sanskrit of the Veda; and Mr. Sayce strongly holds that the neglect of Turanian has led to many other rash conclusions besides the specific one now mentioned. On this point we quite agree with him.

Our readers are doubtless familiar with the division of languages into Isolating, Agglutinative, and Inflectional, with the great dispute whether an isolating tongue is naturally developed—or capable of being developed—into an agglutinative, and afterwards into an inflectional one. Mr. Sayce vehemently says, No. He asserts that even if the Aryan was "the eldest born of a gorilla," "his brain could produce only an inflectional language, as soon as he came to speak consciously." He admits that the three stages of language above named mark "successive levels of civilization," but maintains that "each was the highest expression of the race that carried it out." We would fain gather arguments from Mr. Sayce's pages as strong as these assertions; but we have failed to find them.

The question of the interchange, as it has been called, of letters has attracted much notice. Why, for example, have we *deo* in Latin, *two* in English, and *zwei* in German? Or, again, *tres* in Latin, *three* in English, *drei* in German? Mr. Sayce holds that all the related sounds were "differentiations of one obscure sound which contained within itself the clearer consonants." Primitive man, he believes, had no delicacy of ear. The further back we push our researches, the greater becomes the number of obscure, or neutral, sounds. The oldest words he holds to have conveyed ideas of the most purely sensuous kind.

Mr. Sayce's speculations on the Metaphysics of language are in more than one sense oracular. But his illustration of his meaning should be more intelligible. Take the question of gender:—how can the sexual character attributed to nouns be explained? Some have ascribed it to a philosophic, or perhaps poetic, view of the character of the objects as resembling in quality either males or females, or neither. Mr. Sayce sets aside this view by referring to African dialects that have eight or even eighteen genders. Following Bleek, but somewhat modifying his view, he says: Out of the endless variety of words that might have been taken for personal and demonstrative pronouns, use selected some; each of these was associated with "an ever-increasingly specified" class of nouns; and where the pronouns continued different the classes of substantives connected with them

continued different also. "Where the majority of words with a common termination were of a certain gender, all other words with the same ending were referred to the same gender." And then we have illustrations supplied from Mexa, and Abiponian, and Mikir, and Tshetsh, and Wolof!

Mr. Sayce holds that the dual is older than the plural. This opposes the common belief of scholars; but he argues the point ably, and, what is more, clearly.

The chapter on Philology and Religion is the part of the book that satisfies us least. We find a multitude of propositions, stated without proof, which would upset the belief of nine-tenths of thinking men. For example—

"The religious instinct first exhibits itself in the worship of dead ancestors. Society begins with a hive-like community, the members of which are not individually marked out, but together form one whole. In other words, the community, and not the individual, lives and acts. But the community does not comprise the living only; the dead equally form a part of it; and their presence, it is believed, can alone account for the dreams of the savage or the pains and illnesses to which he is subject. In this way the conception of a spiritual world takes its rise."

And all this is quietly taken for granted! Let us pass on, lest we lose our temper, to the concluding chapter, which discusses the influence of Analogy in language. It deals with nothing deep, but simply states some very obvious truths. The influence of analogy may be seen in the tendency now existing in English to reduce all verbs to the weak form of conjugation. Its influence is far-reaching. It affects language both as to its matter and its form. As to its matter, analogy produces change in accent, quantity, and pronunciation generally. It moulds not only accident and syntax, but the signification of words. Exceptional cases are forced into harmony with the prevailing rule. Irish accents its words on the first syllable; the cognate Welsh on the penultimate; though originally the mode of accentuation must have been similar in both. "A particular mode of accentuation became fashionable," and the "whole stock of words was gradually brought under the dominant type." This explanation does not explain much, however; it only asserts that the majority drew the minority after it. But how did the majority go in one direction in Irish, and in another in Welsh?

There are many striking things scattered up and down the pages before us. Rash as we deem Mr. Sayce, at all events he never fails to be interesting; and his stores of information are very great.

SKETCH OF THE KĀTHIS.

ESPECIALLY THOSE OF THE TRIBE OF KHĀCHAR AND HOUSE OF CHOṬILA.

BY MAJOR J. W. WATSON, BHAUNAGAR.

DURING the celebrated strife between the Kauravas and Pāṇḍavas, when the latter were travelling incognito, during the thirteenth year of their banishment, the Kauravas, by way of discovering their enemies, went about harassing cows, so as to induce the Pāṇḍavas to declare themselves by issuing to protect them. How their device succeeded is detailed in the *Mahābhārata*. Now Karṇa, the son of Sūrya by Kuntā, mother of the Pāṇḍavas, was an ally of the Kauravas, and he undertook to bring to aid them the best cattle-lifters in the world. This Karṇa was the first to bring the Kāthīs into Hindustān, and accordingly when he came to the Kauravas' aid he brought with him the seven tribes of the Kāthīs, viz. (1) Paṭgar, (2) Pāṇḍavā, (3) Nārād, (4) Nātā, (5) Mānjariā, (6) Tōṭariā, and (7) Garibāguliā. These seven are the original Kāthīs, and all the modern tribes are sprung from their intermarriage with Rājput tribes; thus the intermarriage with the Wālās gave rise to the great sub-tribe of the Shākhāyats, in which are included the three leading tribes of Wālā, Khāchar, and Khumān; the intermarriage with the Rāthods of the Dhāndhāl tribe gave rise to the Dhāndhāls; and their intermarriage with the Jhālās founded the tribe of Khawāḍ.* These original Kāthīs, accompanying the Kauravas, lifted the cattle of Verāt, the modern Dholakā, and after the defeat of the Kauravas settled in the province of Mālwa, on the banks of the river Chomal.

Now Vrittriketu, of the Solar race, coming from Ayodhyānagari, is said to have founded the kingdom of Māṇḍavagaḍh in Mālwa; some accounts represent him to have brought with him to Mālwa the seven tribes of the Kāthīs; and this account appears the more probable of the two. Vrittriketu was succeeded on the throne of Māṇḍavagaḍh by Ajaketu, whose descendants many years after are said to have entered Saurāshtra and reigned at Walā. They were accompanied by the seven Kāthī tribes, who, however, leaving Saurāshtra, went to Kachh, and there founded the kingdom of Pāwaragaḍh, near the site of the modern Bhuj, where

they remained for many years. One year there was a great famine, and Vishālo, the head of the Paṭgar tribe, with his tribe and many other Kāthīs, came to Saurāshtra, and taking their flocks and herds into the Baraḍā mountains remained there. Vishālo himself came to Kālāwāḍ (now under Navanagar) and built a *ues* (or hamlet) there. At this time Dhān Wālā was reigning in Walā Chamārdi. One of his sons, by name Verāwalji, went on a pilgrimage to Dwārakā, and on his return journey halted at Kālāwāḍ, where he accidentally saw Rupāḍe, the beautiful daughter of Vishālo Paṭgar, and, being enamoured of her, he asked her hand of her father in marriage. Her father, Vishālo, agreed on condition that Verāwalji should become a Kāthī, and Verāwalji consenting was married with great pomp to the beautiful Rupāḍe. Verāwalji was now outcasted by his brethren, and ever after resided amongst the Kāthīs. The following *kāvī* is said regarding this marriage:—

कवित.

संवत् बार चालीश ॥ मास वैशाख मंडे ॥
 भोमवर तय बीज ॥ चुकर संग उमंडे ॥
 परे वंजला घोर ॥ चौदश फौज सजे ॥
 रणधीरराय रुदये रखी ॥ वीरवीर दीगविवे ॥
 परभणी डंग हालोवणे ॥ एम कालावड आवीये ॥
 सरवलाच वेलावल धानशतण ॥ पटगर बीजला परेपरणीये ॥
 It is written that in Samvat 1240, in the month of Vaishākh, the light half,

On Tuesday the second day of the month, at the commencement of four quarters, The drums were beating loudly and the army was ready in all.

Having kept Ranchoḍrāi at heart, he who was victorious over the four quarters of the earth, The great *saugh* was returning home, and so came to Kālāwāḍ;

He, the all-knowing Verāwal, son of Dhān, Married at the house of Vishālo Paṭgar.

Though in quoting this poetry I have retained the original words, viz. Samvat 1240, I incline to think that it should be Samvat 1440, because there is good reason to doubt that the Parmārs of Muli settled there before the fifteenth century Samvat, and, as will be shown hereafter, they were at this time holding Muli.

* So named from Khawāḍji Jhālā, the son of Harpāḍera, who married a Kāthīka.

After this marriage Verāwalji, as a *Suryavansī* Rājput, was looked on not only by the Patgars, but by the seven tribes of the Kāthīs, as their head and chieftain, and he went to the Barādā hills to receive their allegiance, and then, taking the seven tribes of the Kāthīs with him, he went to Dhānk and set up his *gāli* there. Dhānk is said to have been called *Mungipur Pāṭan* and *Rehewās Pāṭan* in ancient times, but it had fallen waste, and was now repopulated by Verāwalji. Another account shows that Verāwalji received Dhānk in appanage from the *gāli* of Wālā Chamārdi, but this is not so probable as the above. It is supposed that Verāwalji sat on the *gāli* of Dhānk in S. 1245,* A.D. 1189. Verāwalji was succeeded on the *gāli* by his son Wāloji; he had altogether three sons and one daughter, viz. (1) Wāloji, who succeeded him, (2) Khmānji, (3) Lālu, and (4) his daughter Mānkāli, whom he married to a Parmār Rājput. The descendants of Mānkāli by her Parmār husband are called *Jebālī Kāthīs*. After Verāwalji's death Wāloji† returned to the old Kāthī seat of Pāwargadh in Kachh, and, conquering about four hundred villages in the vicinity, remained there ruling over the Kāthīs. At this time Jām Satoji ruled over a portion of Kachh; he had a feud with the Sodhā of Dhāt-Pārkar, and collected an army to invade that country. One of the Jām's courtiers, who knew of Wāloji's prowess, advised the Jām to take Wāloji with him, and the Jām invited him to accompany him. When the Jām's messenger explained his message to Wāloji, Wāloji agreed to aid him with fifteen hundred horse and marched at once to his camp, where Jām Satoji received him and his Kāthīs with much cordiality, and bestowed on Wāloji a handsome tent. The Kāthīs from their prowess became the leading portion of the army, which soon reached the confines of Dhāt-Pārkar.‡ When the news of this invasion reached the Chief of Pārkar, he with his brothers Alang and Samarath came forth with their army and joined battle with the Jām; but after an obstinate resistance the three brothers were slain, and the Jām pillaged the whole country of Pārkar, after which he turned his steps towards his own dominions, and on his

way thither camped at the Nigālā tank, where there were but few trees. The Kāthīs formed the vanguard of the army, and arriving first at the tank pitched their tents under the shade of these trees. When the Jām arrived, he was excessively enraged at the conduct of the Kāthīs in not leaving him a tree beneath which he might pitch his tent, and compelled Wāloji to remove his tents. Wāloji vowed revenge, and the Jām, unwilling to provoke a chief of his prowess, now endeavoured to conciliate him, and styled him the Kāthī Jām. Wāloji, however, refused all his overtures and withdrew from the camp with his Kāthīs, and a few days after, finding the Jhādejis off their guard, he made a night attack on the Jām's tents and slew him and five of his brothers, the youngest brother, Jām Abdā (after whom the Abdāsī district in Kachh is named), alone escaping. Jām Abdā with a large force marched against Pāwargadh, expelled the Kāthīs from thence, and finally drove them across the Rān, pursuing them to Thān. Other accounts say that Jām Abdā pursued the Kāthīs to Pāwargadh, where he besieged them, and eventually compelled them to receive a garrison, which was posted in the citadel, and also forced Wāloji to give him his daughter in marriage. After a year or two had elapsed, the Kāthīs on a fixed day massacred the Jām's garrison and then fled across the Rān, *vid* Morbi and Wānkāner, to Thān in the Panchāla, whither they were hotly pursued by Jām Abdā. At Thān was the celebrated temple of the Sun, and it is said that that luminary appeared in a dream to Wāloji and encouraged him to risk a battle; and he accordingly did so, repulsing Jām Abdā, who now retired to Kachh. Some say that in this conflict the Sun appeared in Wāloji's ranks in mortal form, riding on a white horse, and that wherever this strange warrior went the enemy's men fell as though mown with a sickle. After this the Kāthīs devoted themselves more than ever to Sun-worship. The descendants of Wāloji were called Wālās; they with the other Kāthīs remained at Thān till Sahravāt 1480,§ when the three sons of Wāloji acquired the chieftdom of Chital, and taking with them their followers and kinsfolk they

* This is probably S. 1445, A.D. 1389.

† The fact of Wāloji leaving Dhānk and returning to Pāwargadh shows, I think, that the occupation of Dhānk was merely temporary, and that it was not bestowed in appanage, in which case he would have been loth to relinquish it.

‡ Also called Dhāt.

§ This date, probably correct, shows that the Sahravāt 1345 is a mistake for S. 1445, and S. 1240 for S. 1440, as only one generation had elapsed, and these three were the second generation from Verāwalji.

reigned there. Khumānji, the second son of Verāwalji, had one son named Nāgpāl,—so named from his having adopted the worship of the Nāga Wāsuki, or Wāsangji as he is now called. Nāgpāl had two sons, Mānsur and Khāchar. The descendants of Mānsur were called Khumāns, after their grandfather Khumānji. Mānsur had a son named Nāgsur, who acquired Sāwar-Kuṇḍlā, and remained there with his kinsfolk and followers; he is the ancestor of the Khumān Kāthīs of Sāwar-Kuṇḍlā under Bhānnagur. Lānji, the third son of Verāwalji, had a son named Khāchar, from whom all the Khāchar tribe of Kāthīs are descended. His son was Khimānand, whose son was Wājsur, who had two sons, Panjo and Nāgsur. From Panjo sprang the Sōmāsriās (under Mali), the Dāndās, and the Thobāliās. Nāgsur had a son, Nāgījan, whose sons were Kālo and Nāgpāl. From Nāgpāl descended the Mokānās, which sub-tribe are now to be found at Bhādli and Khambālā. Kālo was a renowned Kāthī, and he in S. 1542 founded the village of Kālāsar, naming it after himself. Kālo was a devoted worshipper at the shrine of Śiva in the Thāngā hills, called the Thāngānāth, and in S. 1560 the god, pleased with the assiduity of his devotions, told him that he would grant him all the land which he should be able to see in a straight line from his shrine; he also told him that a caravan laden with grain would come for the supply of his soldiers, but that he must not look back. Kālo Khāchar looked and saw the land as far as Lolīānā, on the banks of the Bhādar. The caravan too arrived, and he filled his storehouses with grain; but after this, while about to make room for more, he accidentally looked back, when all the bullocks of the caravan were changed into stones, and the grain into dust. These stones may yet be seen between Kālāsar and the Thāngānāth. Afterwards Kālo Khāchar, with the assistance of the Thāngānāth, took possession of the land which he had seen. Kālo Khāchar had four sons, named Sāmat, Thebo, Jāvaro, and Vejo. The descendants of Jāvaro are called Kuṇḍaliās. Thebo had two sons, Dāno and Lakho; the descendants of Dāno were called after their grandfather Thebo, Thebānis; but the descendants of Lakho are called after their father, Lakhā-

nis. The tālukdārs of Pāliād are Thebānis, while the tālukdārs of Jāsān and their blayāds are Lakhānis. Sāmat had four sons:—Rāmo, Nāgo, Devāt, and Sajāl, regarding whom the following *daho* is said:—

॥ हुनो ॥ शगमल रामो ने सवभल ॥ देवाइन दीगपाल ॥

नरभटकी नागदो ॥ उ शमनका चार ॥

Sāmat and Rāmo are entirely good,

Devāt is a protector of the world,*

Nāgo is a victorious man,—

These are the four (sons) of Sāmat.

Sāmat Khāchar conquered Choṭilā from the Parmārs, and Sojakpur and Shāpur from the Gohels; previous to these conquests he reigned at Thān. The conquest of Choṭilā, then called Choṭgaḍh, was on this wise. Choṭilā was held by Jagsio Parmār,† and the Kāthī women, who in all time have been famous for their beauty, used to go there to sell grass, firewood, &c., and were noted for their skill in smearing the floors with cowdung. On one occasion some beautiful Kāthiānis were employed for this purpose in Jagsio's palace, and he becoming enamoured of them made them proffers of love, which they scornfully rejected, though he detained them for some time in hopes of overcoming their constancy. When they reached home their husbands and brethren asked them why they returned so late. They replied, "You are not our husbands; our husband is Jagsio Parmār, who has thus dared to detain us." They then related the insults they had been subjected to, and their husbands and kinsmen swore by the sacred Sun to avenge them or die. It is said that these women came from Gugliānā, a village between Thān and Choṭilā; their husbands went to Thān and complained to Sāmat Khāchar, and offered to seat him on the throne of Choṭilā if he would avenge them on the Parmār. Sāmat, though now old, agreed, and it was arranged to invite Jagsio Parmār to a feast at Gugliānā, when on the signal "*Lakhā wāṇḍar gher*" ("Lakhā, besiege the monkey,") Lakhā should slay Jagsio. This Lakhā was the ancestor of the Lakhānis mentioned above, and was nephew of Sāmat Khāchar, and son of Thebo as aforesaid. Jagsio Parmār, ignorant of the plot, accepted the invitation to Gugliānā, and was received with much respect by the

* *Digpāl* means literally 'a protector of the points of the compass.'

† The Parmārs say that this Jagsio was a Khavās, but this is probably to hide their shame.

Kāthīs. After he had eaten and drunken, Sāmat Khāchar said "*Lakhā wāndar gher*," but Lakhā stirred not. Sāmat two or three times repeated the signal, but Lakhā's heart failed him, for Jagsio was a powerful man; at last Nāg Khāchar, son of Sāmat, said to Lakhā, "If you will not, I will," and Lakhā assenting, Nāg Khāchar drew his sword and with one blow hewed off Jagsio's head. A massacre of his followers ensued, and the Kāthīs mounting at once proceeded to and surprised Choṭilā, expelling the Parmārs. This conquest was made in the month of Chaitra, Samvat 1622. The Lakhānis are to this day taunted with the cowardice of their ancestor. Nāg Khāchar now mounted the Choṭilā *gādi*, but his reign was of short duration; for the Mulī Parmārs, with the view of avenging the death of Jagsio and of recovering Choṭilā, led a strong force against that place. On this occasion Nāg Khāchar, after fighting with great gallantry, fell, with fifty other Kāthīs, in the streets of Choṭilā. The Parmārs, however, also suffered so severely that they were obliged to return without placing a garrison in the town. The following verses are said in praise of Nāg Khāchar:—

॥ कवीन ॥ गडे राय सीधु से चडे लोदोगीयण ॥
 उगरे नके अरजडे भारा ॥
 पडचडे ताई भरलहर बुडे प्रशण ॥
 खाचरा तणा दल समुद्र खारा ॥
 हरा शामन हवी डेव मोकल हरा ॥
 कटकरा उफणे लोड काला ॥
 भवध जेम गडगडे, कटकरा उफणे ॥
 बेरीया शरे पांचाल बाला ॥
 फेटलेवे वंका हुन कटका करक ॥
 मेच जव थोया छव गरक मोई ॥
 सावकाला हरा लहर अगिर छे
 नाग बाली दली नाग नाही ॥

When the Sindhu tune is sung, the waves (of his prowess) mount to the sky,
 Then the enemy can find no shore of safety;
 If they fight, then the foe is drowned beneath the waves,
 For the Khāchar's army is as the salt sea.
 Descendant of Sāmat, and also of Thebo and Moko,
 Whose forces rise like the black waves,
 And roar as the sea roars,

* The word *गुफरी* means 'the mound of the white ant,' a notorious haunt of cobras; here *Rāphro* is also used figuratively for the Choṭilā hill.

Does the rising of the army of the lord of the Panchāla against his foes.

His army, ever patrolling the country, dashes down even the brave.

The chiefs of the Mlechhas were drowned wherever they were:

For the waves of the grandson of king Kālā reach to the heavens,

And no estimate can be formed of the army of Nāg.

The following verses are also in praise of Nāg Khāchar, who by a play on words is likened to a *nāga* or cobra, as in the preceding verses his army was compared with the ocean:—

॥ दुहो ॥ राफरे चौटीलरे ॥ फुकनखे गेणाग ॥
 बादी रखे जगाडतो ॥ सोनागा ओतनाग ॥
 At his ant-hill * of Choṭilā.
 He hisses as high as heaven:
 Vādī, † be careful lest he wake!
 Thus Nāg resembled a *nāga* (cobra).

॥ दुहो ॥ खाचर चौटीला तणे ॥ वंरक वेण वेड ॥
 नागन जायवे ॥ शेणीये शामत रावत ॥

At your palace of Choṭilā

The drums beat so loudly,

O Nāg, son of Sāmat,

That one cannot hear aught else.

On the death of Nāg Khāchar his brother Rāmo assumed the sovereignty over Choṭilā: but after his time, owing to the feud with the Parmārs, Choṭilā was deserted. Yet the Parmārs were never able to recover it, and its lands remained under the Khāchars' sovereignty. The descendants of Rāmo are called Rāmānis. The *pāliās* erected in memory of Nāg Khāchar and the Kāthīs who fell with him are still standing at Choṭilā. From Sagāl Khāchar, son of Sāmat, and brother of Nāg and Rāmo, sprang the Suragāni and Tājparā Kāthīs; from Nāg the Nāgānis and Kālānis; while from Devāit sprang the Gōdāḍkās, who now hold lands in Boṭād and Gaḍhrā under Bhāunagar. Rāmo Khāchar, who ruled at Choṭilā, had six sons, viz. (1) Chomlo, (2) Jogi, (3) Nāndo, (4) Bhimo, (5) Jaso, and (6) Kāpaḍī. Chomlo left Choṭilā and lived at Haḍmatiyā and Dāntavash. Jogi had a son Rāmo, whose son was Velo, whose descendants are at present the Girāsīs of Umardā under Dhrāngadhrā. One of his

† A *vādī* is a professional snake-catcher, but the word also means 'an enemy,' and is here used in the double sense.

descendants named Kālo, son of Māmāyo, was a brave and renowned Kāthī, and the following verses are said in his honour:—

॥ दुहो. ॥ कौडे लख कदीये ॥ लखन मोह हज़ार ॥

हज़ारे शौ कदीये ॥ शोभा कली सर ॥

From a krór take a lākh,

From a lākh take one thousand,

From a thousand select one hundred,

In the hundred Kālo will be best.

And this verse—

॥ दुहो. ॥ कलीभा भाये भेला कटक ॥ बीजां वार हज़ार ॥

समन हर सरदार ॥ कीचो रगनाथे रामावन ॥

Kāliā, if even there should assemble twelve thousand other armies,

Where has Raghunāth created a sardār like Rāmo the son of Sāmat?

Nādo, the third son of Rāmo, died without male issue. From his fourth son Bhimo sprang the Bhimānīs, who hold some lands on the banks of the Bhādar; and from his fifth son Jaso sprang the Jasānīs. The sixth son, named Kāpaḍi, went to Dhandhukā, which he conquered, expelling Aja Mer and the Muhammadan garrison. He conquered for himself a *chorāsi*, or principality of 84 villages, on the banks of the Rāmpur Bhādar river, and used to make forays in the surrounding districts at the head of fifteen hundred horse, and many stories are told of his daring. The following verses are in his praise:—

॥ रुपक. ॥ केशर काँये जड़ ॥ भचमर नहर काँये ॥

भवशरी कुशरी खरी मंदि ॥

केशरी रामरी चकरी कापडी ॥

कापडी गरजीचो भाद्र कडि ॥

चंयुके शीयो पनशाह भर घोटे ॥

प्रज्ञा रखपाल जाने पडले ॥

गुड मुंडा वली वली आखी गले ॥

बोलीए जशीभर वाच बाली ॥

लोहमे थाप उभारीए अलवल ॥

अरहरां झीकौकांध भाडी ॥

उवांघर घोखले शींगली मंगली ॥

कहो महा वाप सोराठ काडी ॥

खाचरां राभोरा नहर लागा खरा ॥

भोयनण बारदश वले भागी ॥

भशरवाए अकरी, वाकवण उवरी ॥

वाहराजोहरी होक वागी ॥

As the lion rends, so the sword is the claw of the Kāthī;

He cleaves the strongest elephants of the world,
Does Kāpaḍi, son of the lion-like Rāmo.

Kāpaḍi roared on the banks of the Bhādar, Conquering the land he became king of Dhan-dhukā.

He was protector of his subjects like a tiger; Though he devoured great pieces of the elephants' legs, yet the (blood)thirsty young tiger roared,

His iron claws he raised with immeasurable strength,

And cast down the army of his thick-necked enemies,

The umbrella-bearing (king) cut them down as it were bulls and elephants,—

Say, Thus did the great tiger, the Kāthī of Sorath.

The claws of the Khāchar Rāo struck deeply; From fear they fled (from him) in every direction,

On the Asuras fell a heavy calamity.

Bravo, king of lions, thou hast sorely terrified them!

There is also this couplet:—

॥ दुहो. ॥ पाडल वपर पाग ॥ न पडे मेजाळी वगो ॥

कापडीभो करमाल ॥ थोडे चोटील धगो ॥

The feet of banner-bearing (kings)

Cannot stay on the mountain (of Chotilā);

Because the Kāpaḍi lord of Chotilā

Is brandishing his sword.

Kāpaḍi Khāchar had seven sons, viz. (1) Nāgājan, (2) Jaso, (3) Wasto, (4) Harsur, (5) Devāt, (6) Hijho, and (7) Wālero, of whom Nāgājan was the most famous. He had two sons, Lakho and Mula Khāchar, and married his daughter Premābāi, in the month of Pausā Sāvat 1713 (A.D. 1657), to Bājhāni Dhāndhal at Gugliānā, and gave her the village of Chhāḍiālī as a marriage portion. The following verses are said concerning Nāgājan:—

॥ दुहो. ॥ गुगलीभाणे गडगडे ॥ खुनी खानवणां ॥

भोल्ले अंवर रहा ॥ नररहा नामाजना ॥

When (the drums) of a ferocious Khān were beating at Gugliānā

Men remained under your protection, O Nāgājan.

Mula Khāchar made Seja kpur his capital, and thence conquered Ānandapura; while Lakhā Khāchar made Shāpur his capital, whence he conquered Mewāsā and Bhādilā.

Mula Khāchar had three sons:—(1) Wājsur, (2) Rāmo, and (3) Sādul. Of these, Rāmo kept Ānandapura as his share, and the present talukdārs of Ānandapura are his descendants. During these times Chotilā was still waste, nor

had it ever been repopulated since its relinquishment by the sons of Rāmo Khāchar. It remained thus waste until Samvat 1806, when, in the month of Māgha, Khāchars Sādai Mula, Wājsur Mula, and Rāmo Mula repopulated it. These three were the sons of Mula Khāchar of Sejakpur, of whom mention has been made above. Lakhā Khāchar of Shāpur had seven sons, three of whom—Bhim, Kumpo, and Bhān—were his sons

by the sister of Jhānjhariā Dhāndhal; and the other four—Suro, Viro, Wāgho, and Bhoko—were the sons of the sister of Ghaghāni Bhim. Kumpo and Bhān reigned at Bhādli. Wāgho ruled at Mewāsā. Suro reigned at Shāpur and Chobāri, Viro at Sanosrā and Piplāli, while Bhoko ruled at Ajmer. The sons of Suro, named Velo and Nājo, succeeded their father at Chobāri in Samvat 1836.

TRANSLATION OF BHARTṚHARI'S NĪTI ŚATAKAM.

BY PROF. C. H. TAWNEY, M.A., CALCUTTA.

(Continued from page 265.)

Some miscellaneous stanzas.

A woman's heart is like a glass, reflecting every face,
Her secret thoughts, like mountain paths, are difficult to trace,
Her fancy wavers, like the dew which lotus-leaves enclose,
Her faults, like deadly Upas-buds, develop as she grows.

Who falls in sight of either host
Upon th' ensanguined plain,
Though victory and heaven be lost,
From both sides praise doth gain.

The Boar's and Rāhn's mighty deeds our reverence command;
The one upheld with gleaming tusks the sea-o'erwhelmed land;
The other, sorely maimed in fight, while head and throat remain
Makes shift to swallow still the foes he must release again.

The land is limited by sea, the sea its bounds must keep,
The ever-wandering orb of day measures heaven's trackless deep;
All things are fettered and restrained, except the sage's mind,
Which springs beyond the bourn of death, and ranges unconfined.

Between Vishnu and Śiva there's nothing to choose,
Be thy wife fair or foul she will serve thee as well,
Man in woods and in deserts the same course pursues,
And a friend's but a friend in a court or a cell.

By tortoise, hills, and king of snakes
Upheld and poised, earth's centre shakes;
Men of firm faith and constant soul
Swerve not, while endless ages roll.

Does not the tortoise feel the load he bears without complaint?
Is not the flaming lord of day with ceaseless wandering faint?
Are not good men o'erwhelmed with shame when forced their troth to break?
Great spirits love to carry through whate'er they undertake.

Cymbals, to harmonize their tone,
Must first with flour be fed;*
So he can call all bards his own
Who fills their mouths with bread.

The mean pursue a thousand ways to satisfy their greed,
But he will ne'er be chief of saints whose gain's his highest need,
The Aurva-fire drinks up the sea to still its craving maw,
The cloud, to cheer a thirsty world, the waves doth upward draw.

Hard fate to minister and bard assigned!
One must new turns and one new taxes find;
By honeyed language both aspire to climb,
This slowly builds his power, and that his rhyme;
A capacious public both must toil to please,
And part unthanked with liberty and ease.

Though fortune shower her blessings everywhere,
But few will reach the poor man's lowly head;
Though rain-clouds all day long their treasures shed,
Three drops at most reward the *chālak's* prayer.

* Flour is applied to a *myidanga* before it is played upon. (Kāśnāth Trimbakji Telang.)

A man should reverence the sage,
Not only when he gives advice,—
The random words of prudent age,
If rightly weighed, are pearls of price.

The good man, like a bounding ball,
Springs ever upward from his fall;
The wicked falls like lump of clay,
And crumbles into dust away.

What though by some untoward fate no lotus
on the lake be born,
The swan will ne'er, like barndoor fowl, rake in
the dust for grains of corn.

'Tis like the cheeks of elephants splitting with
thunder-sound,
'Tis like the neigh of battle-horse that frets
and paws the ground,
'Tis like a strong man roused from sleep with
trumpets, fites, and drums,
When justice robed in heavenly might, intent
on vengeance, comes.

The heart of the contented man enjoys perpetual
peace,
The covetous pine with lust of wealth; their
cravings never cease;
Not Meru's peak, of gold entire, can captivate
my soul,
Let him, who likes it, clamber up and carry off
the whole.

From nature comes the lotus' rosy hue,
By nature good men others' good pursue,
And cruel men have cruel ends in view.

Truth is the ornament of all mankind,
Slim elephants delight the keeper's mind,
Learning and patience are a Brahman's boast,
Each creature's highest good becomes it most.

Better to fall from mountain height,
And dash thy life out on the plain,
Better th' envenomed serpent's bite,
Better the death in fiery pain,
Than once to swerve from virtue's path,
Which they who lose ne'er find again.

Abandon, fool, thy hope to see
The brave man dread calamity;
When the great doom shall earth o'ertake
Nor seas, nor mighty hills will quake.

The moon the lord of healing herbs, whose
gleaming horn is Śiva's crest,
Is doomed with dim eclipse to pine; none can
avoid grim Fate's behest.

A splendid palace, lovely brides, the symbols
all of kingly sway,
Are jewels strung on merit's thread stretching
through many a toilsome day;
As pearls are from a necklace shed, when breaks
the bond that held them fast,
Light they disperse, when merit fails, whirled
from us by misfortune's blast.

SANSKRIT AND OLD CANARESE INSCRIPTIONS.

BY J. F. FLEET, B.C.S.

(Continued from page 280.)

No. VI.

This is an inscription of the Vijayanagara dynasty, from Plate No. 22 of Major Dixon's work. The original, in Canarese characters approaching very closely to those of the modern alphabet, is engraved on a stone-tablet 5' 8" high by 2' 8" broad at Harihar. The language is partly Sanskrit and partly Canarese. The emblems at the top of the stone are:—In the centre, a *līṅga* and a kneeling priest or worshipper; on its right, a figure of Basava, with the sun or moon above it; and on its left, a standing figure, above which there must be the moon or the sun, though the photograph is cut so as not to show it.

The inscription is dated in the year of

the Śālivāhana Śaka 1452 (A.D. 1530-1), the Vikṛiti *saṃvatsara*, and belongs to the time of king Achyutarāya or Achyutadēvarāya. It records that Nārāyaṇadēva, the son of Timmarasa, divided into three portions the village of Baḷḷōpura, otherwise known as Achyutarāyapura, which had been previously granted to him by the king, and allotted one share to the god Harihar and the remaining two shares to Viśvēśvarārādhyā, the son of Rāmachandrārādhyā.

Achyutarāya's* name is mentioned by Prinsep in his list of the kings of Vijayanagara, but his date is wrongly given there as between A.D. 1490 and 1524. I have previously met with his name in No. 9 of the Gadag inscriptions dated Śaka 1461, the Vikāri *saṃvatsara*.

* See the *Ind. Ant.* for October 1873, Vol. II, p. 298, where the reading should be Achyutamahārāya, and not Avayaramahārāya as printed.

Translation.

Reverence to Śrī-Harihara*! Reverence to Śambhu, who is made beautiful by a *chañri* which is the moon that lightly rests upon his lofty head, and who is the foundation-pillar for the erection of the city of the three worlds! I salute that mighty tree of paradise which is the form of Harihara, the trunk of which is encircled by the creepers which are the arms of Śrī† and Gauri‡!

Hail! On the anniversary of the incarnation of Śrī-Kṛishṇa, at the holy time of the Jayanti §, on Monday the eighth day of the dark fortnight of the month Śrāvaṇa of the Vikṛiti *saṁvatsara*, which was the year of the victorious and glorious Śālivāhana Śaka 1452, while the glorious supreme king of kings, the supreme lord of kings, the brave and puissant great king Achyutarāya, was governing the earth with the recreation of pleasing conversations:—

Nārāyaṇadēva, the son of Tīmaraṇa|| of Chinnabhaṇḍāra, of the lineage of Vasiṣṭha and of the ritualistic school of Āśvalāyana,—having allotted to the *avasara-sutra* ¶ of the god Śrī-Hariharaḍēva two shares of the village of Ba||ōpura, a *Vāḍa* ** which has also the name of Achyutarāyapura, in the boundaries of (the town of) Harihara which belongs to the district of Pāṇḍyanāḍu within the *Vāṇṭhet*†† of Uchchaṅgi which belongs to the *Chāvaḍi*‡‡ of Koṭṭūra, which his master had allotted to him for the office of *Amaranāyaka* §§, — gave (the remaining) one share, in the presence of the god Śrī-Hariharaḍēva, with gifts of gold and libations of water, to Viśvēśvarārādhya, the son of Rāmachandrārādhya of Harihara, of the lineage of Gautama and of the ritualistic school of Āśvalāyana; and (with it) he gave a religious charter to the effect that “In this manner you shall happily enjoy (this village) in three shares, in the succession of your sons and

grandsons, as long as the moon and sun may last.”

In (discriminating between) giving a grant and preserving (the grant of another), preservation is better than giving; from giving a grant a man obtains paradise, but by preserving (the grant of another) he attains the sphere of Achyuta |||! In this world land that has been given to a Brāhmaṇa is as a sister to all kings, who is not to be enjoyed nor to be taken in the way of taxes ¶¶! The preservation of that which has been given by another is twice as meritorious as giving in one's own person; by confiscating the grant of another, one's own grant becomes fruitless! He is born for sixty thousand years as a worm in ordure, who confiscates land that has been given, whether by himself or by another! As many particles of dust as the tears of eloquent Brāhmaṇas, fathers of families, who weep when they are despoiled of their wealth, gather up; during so many years are kings or those belonging to the families of kings,—who, throwing off restraint, take away the heritage of Brāhmaṇas,—tormented* in (the hell called) Kumbhipāka†! They commit the sin of incest with a mother, who seize upon any wealth in this *Agrahāra* for the sake of making complimentary presents, or as taxes, or on account of the protection of the village! ‘This general bridge of piety of kings should ever be preserved by you’—thus does Rāmachandra make his earnest request to all future kings! May it be auspicious!

The details of the four boundaries of this village are:—To the east of the village, a tamarind-tree above a wild fig-tree; to the† of the village

No. VII.

This is another Vijayanagara inscription, from Plate No. 21 of Major Dixon's work. The original is on a stone-tablet 7' 7" high by 2' 11" broad at Harihara. The emblems at the

* A form of deity consisting of Viṣṇu (Hari) and Śiva (Hara) combined.

† The wife of Viṣṇu.

‡ A name of Pārvatī, the wife of Śiva.

§ The rising of the asterism Rōhini at midnight on the eighth day of the dark fortnight of Śrāvaṇa, on which day Viṣṇu became incarnate as Kṛishṇa.

|| Śrī, ‘king Tīmara.’

¶ ‘Sutra’, obligation, charity, asylum or almshouse, charitable dining-hall; ‘avasara-sutra’ seems to mean an occasional ‘sutra’.

** Another form of ‘vāḍa’; see note ‡ page 211.

†† The etymology and meaning of this word are not known. Perhaps we have in it the origin of the Marāṭhī ‘Pāṭh’, a subdivision of a ‘Tālukā’ or ‘Parganā’.

‡‡ At the present day the meaning of this word is restricted to ‘the revenue and police office of a village, in which the village-headman and accountant transact their business’.

§§ *Amaranāyaka*,—the nature of this post is not apparent; *amaranāyaka* is an epithet of Indra as being the leader or chief of the immortals.

||| ‘The imperishable one’,—Viṣṇu, whose sphere is one of greater happiness and of higher rank than the paradise of Indra, Svarga.

¶¶ A play on words is intended here, *Varagrāhyā* meaning also to be taken by the hand, i.e. married.

* Lit., ‘are cooked.’

† The hall in which the wicked are baked like potters' vessels.

‡ See note * to line 22 of the text.

ದು(ವೃ)ಧವ್ರತಃ || ದಯಾಸುಧಾನಿಧೀಶ್ವರಃ || ಐಶ್ವರೇಶ್ವರಃ || ಸುಕೇಶಃ || ಚ || (1) ವಿಷ-
 ರಂ(ರ) || ಧರ್ಮಮಾಸ್ತೇಶ್ವರಃ || ಸುಭಗೇಶ್ವರಃ || ಸಾಧವಾರಧೀಶ್ವರಃ || [19] ಸ || ಚಾಚ್ಚ ತಮುಸಾರಾ-
 ಯಮಲ್ಲ ಪಂಚಮಹೀಪತಿಃ || ಸತ್ಯಕಾಶೋವಿದೇಶ್ವರಃ || ದೀಪಾನವತ್ಯಪಾಪೇಶ್ವರಃ || ಸುಖಾಧಿಕಃ || || ನೀತಿಹಾ-
 ಸ್ತವಿವೇ[20] ಕಪ್ಪೇಶ್ವರಃ || ವಿಷರಂ(ರ) || ಧರ್ಮವರ್ತನಾಂ || (1) ಶತೇಶ್ವರಃ || ಪರಿಪರಗ್ರಾಮ-
 ವಾಸಿನಾಂ || ಚ || ದ್ವಿಜವೃಂದಾಂ || ಅಸ್ರವಾರೇಶ್ವರಃ || ಸರ್ವೇಶ್ವರಃ || ವೇವನ್ಯಾಸೇಶ್ವರಃ || ಭಾ-
 ಪತೇಶ್ವರಃ || [21] ಅಧಿಕಾರಂ || ಸಮಾಸಾಧ್ಯಃ || ಸ್ಥಿತಿಶೇಷಃ || ಪ್ರತೀದಿತಃ || || ಸ್ವಸ್ವಾಮಿನೇಶ್ವರಃ ||
 ಚ್ಯುತೇಂದ್ರಸ್ಯ || ಯಶೋಧರ್ಮಾಭಿವ್ರ(ವೃ)ಧಯಃ || (1) ಯೋಗೀಶ್ವರಂ(ವೃ)ಧವ್ರ(ವೃ)ಧಂಭೋಜಮಂ || [22] ದಿವಾಂ
 ಮಹಾತ್ಮನೇ || || ಅಪಾರಗುಣಸಂಘಾಯ || ಕೋಟಿಸೂರ್ಯಸಮಪ್ತಿದೇಶ್ವರಃ || (1) ನಿರ್ಭೂತನಿಖಿಲದ್ವಂದ್ವಪಠ-
 ದೇಶ್ವರಃ || ಮುರವಿದ್ವಿದೇಶ್ವರಃ || || ಪಾಲಕಾ[23]ಯ || ಶ್ರೀಜತಾಂ || ಸು(ಸೃ)ಷ್ಟಿಸಂಹಾರಕಾರಿಣೇ || (1)
 ಶುಂಕಭದ್ರಾಸದೀಶೇಶ್ವರವಾಸಿನೇ || ಪರಮಾತ್ಮನೇ || || ಗುಣಾತೀತಾಯ || ನಿಶ್ಚಯ(ತ್ವಾ)ಯ || ಸತೇ || ಪರಿ-
 [24] ಹಾರಾಯ || ಚ || (1) ಪಾಂಚಜನ್ಯಾತಾ || ತುಷಾ || ರಂ(ರ)ಮ್ಯ || ಉಚ್ಚಂಗೀನೇಂದ್ರಿಯೇ || ಸ್ಥಿತಂ ||
 ಗುಂದವಾಡಾಭಿಧಂ || ಗ್ರಾಮಂ || ಸರ್ವಸನ್ಯಾಭಿವೃದ್ಧಿವಂ || (1) ಸೀ || (3ನೇ) || [25] ಸಾಪ್ತಾರ್ಯಾಖ್ಯಾಯಿಕಾ || ಮಾತೃ-
 ಶೀಲೇಂ || ದಿತಮಾಶ್ರಿತಂ || ಸಾಲಕಟ್ಟಿಭಿಧಾನ್ಯಾ || ಮಾದುತರಣಾಂ || ಸಮಾಶ್ರಿತಂ || (1) ಬಾಶೀತಿನಾಮಕಾನ್ಯಾ-
 ಮಾಪ್ಪಾಚೇ[26] ಮಾತಾಂಮುಪಾಶ್ರಿತಂ* || ಯಜುಸುಂಪಿಭಿಧಾನ್ಯೇಶ್ವರೇಶ್ವರೇ || ಸ್ಥಿತಂ || (1)
 ನಿಧಿನಿಶ್ಚೇದನಸಂಯುಕ್ತಂ || [27] ಜಲಪಾಶಾಂಸಂಯುಕ್ತಂ || ಅಕ್ಷಿಣ್ಯಾಗಾಮಿಸಂಯುಕ್ತಂ || ಸಿದ್ಧಸಾಧ್ಯ(ವೃ)-
 ನಮಸ್ತುತಂ || (1) ಸರ್ವಸನ್ಯಾಸಮು || ಗ್ರಾಮಂ || ಸಮಸ್ತಜನಸಂಯುಕ್ತಂ || [28] ತಂ || ಸ್ಯಾತಮ-
 ಚ್ಯುತಾಮೇಂದ್ರಮಲ್ಲಾಧರಮಿತಿ || ಪ್ರಿಯಂ || (1) ಪ್ರತಿನಾಮ || ವಿಧಾನ್ಯಾಮುಂ || ಪ್ರಾಧಾನ್ಯಪ್ರಕಾ[29]-
 ರತಂ || ಮಧ್ಯಾಪ್ಪಾನವರೇ || ಕೃಷ್ಣ(ಕೃಷ್ಣ)ಪ್ರಸನ್ನ(ಸ್ಥಿ)ವೇಶ್ವರಾಯ || ನಿವೇದಿತಂ || || ದ್ವಿಜೇಶ್ವರಃ || ಸತ್ಯ-
 ಭುಕ್ತೇಶ್ವರಂ(ತ್ವಂ) || ತಂ || ಗ್ರಾಮಂ || ವಿಷ್ಣುಯೋ[30]ಜಯೇತ್ || ಮಧುಲೇಶ್ವರಃ || ಯಜು[31]ಯೇತ್ ||
 ವಿಷ್ಣು || ಕೋಟೀಶ್ವರಾಯನಂಭವಃ || (1) ಶಿಂಖಾಕಾರಾಧ್ಯ(ವೃ)ತನುಜೇಶ್ವರಃ || ಮಲ್ಲಾಕಾರಾಧ್ಯನಾಮಕಃ || (1)
 [31] ಕೃ(ಕೃ)ತನಾನಿವ || ಪದ್ಮಾನಿ || ಕಾಸನೇ || ಪ್ರಭಾಸನೇಶ್ವರಃ ||

Translation.

Reverence to Sri-Harihara! Reverence to
 Sambhū, who is made beautiful, &c. ! May that
 body of Harihara, which is made auspicious by
 the side-glances of Indira† and the daughter‡
 of the mountain, confer prosperity upon the
 three worlds ! May that god ||, who destroyed
 the race of the demons, protect the whole world ;
 and the mighty Śiva, who humbled the pride of
 Kandarpa¶ ; and (the two conjointly in the
 form of) Harihara, who was the cause of alarm

to Lañkā **, who cut short the intention of the
 leader†† of the Kurus, who is preëminent in the
 world, who destroyed Tripura‡‡, who slew him
 who§§ was the terror and the death of the three
 worlds, and who was like Gaṇa ||| in making an
 end of those (demons) who had pervaded the
 universe ! When they were quarrelling in love,
 the Lord of the daughter of the mountain here
 performed obeisance to appease Bhavāni¶¶,
 and, for fear lest the lotuses which were her feet
 should commence to close their buds, bore (upon

* In the original this line commences with the letters
 ಬೇಮಾಪಾ, but has marks of erasure over them ; the letters
 ಮಾಪಾ are then repeated as I have given them above.

† The vowel, —'i',—is clear ; the consonant only is ille-
 gible in the original.

‡ A name of Śrī or Lakshmi.

§ Pārvatī, the daughter of the mountain Himālaya.

¶ Vishnu or Hari.

¶ Kāmadēva.

** Sitthaladrīpa or Ceylon, or the chief town of that
 island, the stronghold of the demon Rāvaṇa.

†† Duryōdhana, whose chief object in life was to destroy
 or ruin his cousins, the Pāṇḍava princes, but whose efforts
 were frustrated by Vishnu as Kṛishṇa.

‡‡ Three strong cities of a demon destroyed by Śiva, of
 gold, silver, and iron, in the sky, air, and earth.

§§ Probably Rāvaṇa is intended.

||| Kūrttikēya, the god of war.

¶¶ Pārvatī.

his forehead) a slender streak of the moon! May that lotus which is the face of Harihara confer prosperity, which was reproved with her side-glances by the jealous daughter of the mountain, when he peeped at the high nipple of the breast of Ramā*, which was hidden under the end of her garment that shone like the falling rays of a digit of the moon!

This king Achyutadēvarāya reigns gloriously, with the semblance of half the radiant disc of the rising sun or of the full-moon; and his wonderful fame, filling the three worlds, resembles the two opened portions of the egg of Brahma.† Who is more compassionate than king Achyuta?; for, without delay he effects the relief (from poverty or trouble) of his friends who are sincerely attached to him, whereas it was only in consideration of long service that Hari, though he also is Achyuta, conferred final emancipation upon Vyāsa and his other friends. He is ennobled with the titles of 'The glorious supreme king of kings, the supreme lord of kings, the conqueror of the Mūrūyās‡, he who is terrible to other kings, he who is a very Sultan§ among Hindu kings'.

And while king Achyuta was ruling the whole world;—The fortunate king|| Achyutamallapaṇṇa, who was a jewel-mine of the quality of compassion, was employed in all the affairs of king Achyutadēvarāya; he having attained prosperity by good actions which were produced by his worship of Girīśa¶, his mind behaved like a bee to the lotuses which are the feet of him** who carries on his diadem the young moon.

And this same king Achyutamallapaṇṇa, having at a fit opportunity made known his timid request to the king his master, saying "I will bestow a grant in order to obtain the fame of religious merit", straightway gave in perpetuity the fertile village that is called Śrī-Kundavāḍa to Harihara, who is the husband of Śrī and of the daughter of the mountain.

In the year called Viḷambi, belonging to the

* Lakshmi. † The mundane egg, the universe.

‡ This is one of the usual titles of the Vijayanagara kings, but I do not know who the Mūrūyās were; 'Mūru' is given in Prof. Monier Williams' Dictionary as the name of a country, but with no further specification. [Were they Maravar?—Ed.]

§ Śvarāṭṭha in the text, line 11, is a corruption of 'Sultan.'

|| Here and further on the title 'king' is applied to Achyutamallapaṇṇa only to denote high rank and dignity; 'noble' would be a better translation, if not too free.

era of the Śaka established by Śalivāhana, and arrived at by the computation of the sky, the systems of philosophy, the number four, and the moon, in the month Kārtika, on the full-moon, in the bright fortnight, on the day of the son†† of the moon, on the occasion of an eclipse of the moon, that same king Achyutamahārāyamallapaṇṇa, —who was prudent and clever and intellectual and virtuous and pious and true of speech and resolute in his religious vows and very compassionate to Brāhmanas and gods, and who followed the path of religion, and who was amiable and noble-minded and well acquainted with all good accomplishments and learned, and who had the title of Akkapa, and who excelled in virtue and was well acquainted with the writings on morality and ever busied himself in religion, and who had acquired the authority of the king over all the Agraḥāras and the temples of the Brāhmanas who dwelt at the village of Harihara,—being instigated by him, in order to increase the religious reputation of his master king Achyuta, gave, for as long as the moon and stars might last, the village of Kundavāḍa, which yielded all kinds of grain and to which he gave also the pleasing and famous name of Achyutarāyēndramallāpura, in the Vēṅṭheya of Uchchaṅgi, in the delightful country of Pāṇḍyanāḍa,—situated to the W. of the village of Sēlanāru, to the N. of the village of Sālakatte, to the E. of the village of Bātṭi, and to the S. of the herdsmen's station of Yaṛaṅṇe, together with its buried treasure and water and stones and everything that accrues and Akship†† and whatever has become or may become property and all its mānya §§ lands and all its taxes,—to (the god) Harihara,—who is the abiding-place of the lotuses which are the hearts of the assemblage of ascetics, who is the great spirit, who abounds with innumerable good qualities, who is as radiant as a crore of suns, whose body is cleansed from all worldly strife, who is the enemy of Mura|||, who is the preserver of the three worlds and the effecter of creation and

¶ Śiva,—'the lord of the mountain.'

** Śiva.

†† The planet Budha or Mercury,—i. e. 'on Wednesday'.

‡‡ The meaning of this term is not known to such Pundits as I have been able to consult; it is given by Prof. Monier Williams as one of the eight conditions or privileges attached to landed property.

§§ Mānya,—lands either altogether exempt from taxation or liable to only a trifling quit-rent.

||| A demon slain by Viṣṇu as Kṛishṇa.

the destruction of all created things, who dwells on the bank of the river *Tuṅgabhadra*, who is the supreme spirit, who surpasses everything in his merits, who is eternal, and who is good,—the said village being devoted to the perpetual oblation which is offered up at noon-tide and to the purpose of the charitable feeding of *Brahmans*. May it continue victoriously, without being wasted or diminished!

At the command of the king, the learned *Madhūla*,—who has the name of *Mallapārādhyā*; who repeats the hymns and prayers of the *Yajurveda*; the son of *Timmapārādhyā*; born in the family of *Kōṭṭā*,—composed the verses in this charter.

No. VIII.

This is from No. 10 of the photographs of copper-plate inscriptions at the end of Major Dixon's collection. The original belongs to the *Bhīmanakāṭṭi Maṭha** near *Tirthahalli* in *Maisūr*. I publish this inscription chiefly as a curiosity, for it is manifestly a forgery. It purports to belong to the time of *Janamējaya*, the great-grandson of *Yudhishtira* of the *Mahābhārata*, and is dated in the year of the *Yudhishtira Śaka* 89, the *Plavāṅga saṁvatsara*†. The real date of it cannot be fixed; but the style is modern, and the characters are almost the same as those of the present *Bālābōdh* alphabet. The language is Sanskrit, and the inscription covers part of the inner side of the first plate, both sides of the second plate, and part of the inner side of the third plate. It says, if nothing more, a good deal for the power of the *Brahman* priesthood at the time when it was fabricated, and very little for the intelligence of the reigning king whom it was intended to deceive by means of it.

Forgeries of the same type as the present would seem to be somewhat common in the neighbourhood of *Maisūr*. Nos. 1 and 4 of Major Dixon's photographs of copper-plates,—the former at *Anantapur*, and the latter at *Surab*, in *Maisūr*,—purport to belong to the time of *Janamējaya*; but the photographs are indistinct and mutilated, and I cannot give the contents in detail. And Dr. Buchanan mentions‡ an inscription, the locality of which he

does not specify, dated in the year of the *Yudhishtira Śaka* 168, and two others at *Baḷagāma* ve purporting to belong to the reign of *Yudhishtira* himself.

Transcription.

- [1] श्रीमन्नाथिपतये नमः [॥] पातु वे
[2] जलदस्यामाः शाकं ग (शाङ्ग) व्याशान-
[3] ककेशः [॥] वैलीक्यमंडपस्तभाक्षत्तारो
[4] हरिवहवः [॥] स्वस्ती(स्ति) श्रीजयाभुदये युधिष्ठि-
[5] रराके प्रवगास्थे ये(ए)कीननवतिवत्सरे सह-
[6] समसि(सि) भमावास्यायां सौम्यासरे श्रीम-
[7] न्महा राजाधि राज राज परमेश्वरो वीर-
[8] प्रतापशाली कुरुकुलोद्वा(द्र)वी नैयमणीपाद-
[9] गौतमः श्रीजनमेजयभूपः किष्कि(किं)शा(ध्या)-
[10] नगर्वा सिंहासनस्थः सकलवर्णाश्रमा(म)ध-
[11] र्मयतिपालकः पश्चिमदेशस्थसीतापुरवृकोद-
[12] रक्षेत्रे तत्रत्यमुनिवृंदमठस्य गरुडवाहन-

Second Plate, first side.

- [13] तीर्थश्रीमदशि (चिह्न for दक्षि)प्यकैकश्य(ए)नाथैरारा-
[14] धितसीतारामस्य पूजार्थं कृतभू-
[15] दानसाधने अस्मप (प्य) पितामह-
[16] युधिष्ठिरादि (धि) स्थि (धि) तमुनिवृ-
[17] क्षेत्रे स्थ जतुःसीतापरिमितिक-
[18] मः पूर्वभागे उत्तरवाहिन्याः
[19] तुंगभद्राया (या) पश्चिमे दक्षिण-
[20] भागे अगस्त्याश्रमसंगमादु-
[21] तरे पश्चिमे (मभागे) पाषाणनद्याः पूर्वे
[22] उत्तरभागे भिन्ननद्या दक्षिणे
[23] ये (ए) तन्मध्यस्थितमुनिवृ (वृ) दक्ष (क्षे) वे
[24] भवति (चिह्न) प्यपा (ए) र (रे) परया आचंद्राक-
[25] परिचं (यं for रियं) तं निधिनिक्षेपजलपाषा-
[26] णभ(णा for ण अ)क्षिणीभा(ण्या for णी)गामिस्थि
(क्ष)साध्य-

Second Plate, second side.

- [27] तेजः(जः)स्वाम्यसहितं स्वभुया(द्र)नुकूलेन
[28] अस्मन्मातापितृणां (पितृः) विष्णुलो-
[29] कप्राप्य (प्य) र्यं हरिहरसंनिधौ उप-
[30] रागसमय (ये) सहिरण्येन तुंग-
[31] भद्राजलभारापूर्वक (कं) क्षेत्रं य-
[32] तिहस्ते दत्तोस्मिन् अहं । एतद(ज)मै-
[33] साधनस्या(स्य) साक्षिणः [॥] आदिनचंद्रा-
[34] वनिलानलो (लो) च दौभू (भू) मिरापो
[35] हृदयं मनश्च । अहश्च राविश्च उ-
[36] मे च संध्ये धर्मस्य (क्ष) जानाति नर-

* 'Maṭha', a religious college, monastery.

† The date is, of course, long anterior to the introduction of the *Vrihaspatichakra* or cycle of sixty *saṁvatsaras*.

‡ *Journey through Maisūr, Canara, and Malabar*, vol. II, p. 303.

§ नैयमणीपाद is intended.

¶ The remainder of this plate, about one-third of the

whole, is blank, having never been engraved; but the construction runs on naturally from this word to the first line of the next plate, and accordingly nothing seems to have been omitted here.

* The words अष्टभोग should precede तेजःस्वाम्य, but they have been omitted in the original.

† दत्तवानस्मि is intended.

- [37] स्व वृत्ति । (॥) श्रीः चण्डक* [॥] दानपालनयेम-
 [38] ध्ये दानाच्छे(च्छे)यो गुपालने । [॥] दानान्व-
 [39] र्गम वा सो ति पालनाद च्युतं प-
 [40] दं । (॥) स्वदत्तादि(द्वि)गुणं पुण्यं परदत्ता-
 [41] गुपालने [॥] परदत्तापहारेण स्व-
 [42] दत्तं निष्कले भवेत् ॥ मदत्ता पुनिका

Third Plate, inner side.

- [43] जेताः पितृदत्ता सहोदर(रा) । § अन्यद-
 [44] ता तु जननी दत्तभूमिं परि-
 [45] त्यजेत् [॥] अन्यैस्तु छ(च्छ)दितं भुङ्क्ते(भुङ्क्तेः)
 [46] श्रमिष्य छ(च्छ)दितं न तु [॥] ततः
 [47] कष्टो ततो नीचः स्वयंदत्ता-
 [48] पहारकः ॥ स्वदत्ता परदत्ता
 [49] वा ब्रह्मवृत्तिं हरेत् यः । पट्टि(ष्टि)-
 [50] नैव सहस्राणि विष्टायाम् जाय-
 [51] ते कमी (किमि) ॥

Translation.

Reverence to Śrī-Gaṇādhīpati! May the four arms of Hari protect you, which are of a dark colour like a cloud, which are rough from being rubbed by the string of the bow Śārṅga **, and which serve as pillars to support the pavilion of the three worlds!

Hail! In the victorious and glorious Yudhishtīra Śaka, in the eighty-ninth year called Plavaṅga, in the month Sahasya††, on the day of the new-moon, on Wednesday, the king Śrī-Janamējaya, —the glorious supreme king of great kings; the supreme lord of kings; he who was endowed with valour and puissance; he who was born in the race of Kuru and in the lineage of Vaiyāghrapāda; he who was enthroned at the city of Kishkindhyānagarī; he who protected the rites of all castes and of all the stages of life, —made a grant of land‡‡ in the sacred locality called Vṛikōdarakshōtra of the city of Sītāpura which is in the south country, on account of the worship of (the god) Sītārāma who had been propitiated by Kaikayanātha, the holy disciple of Garuḍavāhanatīrtha, of the religious college of the band of the saints belonging to those parts, (as follows):—

* Perhaps श्रीचण्डक, 'the holy bear' (Vishnu), is intended.

† This letter, —ह— was at first omitted in the original and then inserted below the line.

‡ The word जेय was at first omitted in the original and then inserted above the line.

§ In the original this stop is inserted between the द and the र of सहोदर.

¶ This character, as written in the original, requires only

"In the sacred locality of the band of saints, which was presided over by my great-grandfather Yudhishtīra, and the details of the four boundaries of which are:—On the E., to the W. of the Tuṅgabhadra which (at that place) flows to the north; on the S., to the N. of the confluence of rivers which is called the confluence of the hermitage of Agastya; on the W., to the E. of the Pāshāpanadi §§; and on the N., to the S. of the Bhinnanadi,—in order that my parents may attain the world of Vishnu,—in the presence of the god Harihara, at the time of an eclipse, with gifts of gold, and with libations of the water of the Tuṅgabhadra, I, of my own free will, have given into the hands of ascetics, (to be enjoyed) by the succession of your disciples as long as the moon and sun may last, the sacred locality of the band of saints which is situated within these limits, together with its hidden treasure and water and stones and everything that accrues and Akṣipī and whatever has become or may become property, and with the proprietorship of the glory (of the eight sources of enjoyment)."

The witnesses to this act of piety are:—The sun, the moon, the wind, fire, the sky, the earth, the waters, the heart, the mind, and day, and night, and the morning- and the evening-twilight, and Dharma|||, know the behaviour of a man! Śrīcāraka. ¶¶ In (discriminating between) giving a grant and preserving &c.! The preservation of that which has been given by another is twice &c.! (Let each one say to himself),—Land given by myself is to be regarded as a daughter, and land given by a father as a sister, and land given by another as a mother; one should abstain from land that has been bestowed! He, who is mean enough to confiscate that which has been given by himself, is viler than that which is vomited forth by other low animals, but not by dogs! He is born for sixty thousand years as a worm in ordure, who takes away the portion of a Brāhmaṇ, whether it has been given by himself or by another!

one curve more, in the lower part, to convert it from मु into शु. ** The bow of Vishnu. †† Puzha.

‡‡ Śrījanamejyabhūpaḥ * * * * * kṛitabhūddānasaḥ dhanam,—there is no separate verb with the nominative case Śrījanamejyabhūpaḥ. The construction is wrong in Sanskrit grammar, but it is a translation of the Canarese idiom Śrījanamejyabhūpanu mādāda bhūddānasaḥ dhanam.

§§ 'The rocky river.'

||| Yama.

¶¶ See note * to line 37 of the text.

ROUGH NOTES ON KHANDESH.

BY W. F. SINCLAIR, B. C. S.

(Continued from p. 110.)

The Kathkaris* are found in the forests of the west or north. They are all of the Dhor division and eat beef.

The Parwâris of Khândesh are identical in all respects with those of the Dekhan.

The Wandering Tribes are much the same as in the Dekhan.

The most peculiar are a set of people called the Magar Shikâris, who spend their lives wandering up and down the large rivers fishing, especially for crocodiles. Their procedure is to get the crocodile into some pool having narrow outlets, which they stop with large and strong nets. If they mark one in at night, they light fires and watch the pool till daylight.

The Mân Bhâwâs are a religious sect who wear black garments and beg about, but have now generally settled down to trade and agriculture. I am not aware of their special tenets, but they seem to be unpopular amongst orthodox Hindûs. A guru of this sect, named Ajîbâ, exercised considerable influence at the court of Indor during the corrupt period of the regency of Tulasi Bâi, after Yeshwantrao Holkar had become insane.

A peculiar race of drovers called Kâuades sometimes visit the western forests of Khândesh, though their proper pastures are in the north-west corner of the Dekhan. They appear to be descended from Drâvidian immigrants, but have no tradition to that effect and no special language. They are more civilized and respectable than most wandering herdsmen, and resemble more the Marâṭhâ cultivators. In parts of the Nâsik district they have taken entirely to agriculture. They have a peculiar breed of black and white cattle called Hatkar, much prized in the Kolkan for their strength and spirit, though not large. They worship Kṛishṇa as the divine herdsman, and take good care of their cattle, and are altogether a good sort of folk.

Under the head of Hill or Forest Tribes, however, we find much that is new and interesting in this district.

There are very few Râmusis, the Bhisti Kolist† taking their intermediate place between

the settled races and the "pucka junglies," in addition to their own position as water-bearers, fishers, and ferrymen. They are particularly numerous in the east and south, where they generally hold the inferior offices of village police, those of the Jâglia or general watchman, Tarâl or gate-ward, and Talabde, or sentry of the village *chauri*; and also that of the village Havildâr who answers to the Chongule of the Dekhan, being the head of the village police under the *pâfils*, in whose absence he is responsible for order. These Kolist are often great *shikâris*, as skilful in woodcraft as the Bhills, and far cooler and steadier. They are also tolerable cultivators, less given to crime than most castes of this sort, and withal a fine manly set of fellows, physically and morally. They do not, however (on account of their inferior numbers and less troublesome character), attract nearly so much attention as the next race on the list, the Bhills‡.

I have not seen the results of the last census of Khândesh, but I hope some officer now serving there will correct, if necessary, the rough estimate which was current when I was in that district, viz. that the Bhills numbered 150,000 souls, or about ten per cent. of the whole population of Khândesh, including the three southwestern talukâs, since transferred to Nâsik. This estimate, however, allowed for several races who are not true Bhills, or, as they call themselves, "Bhill Naiks" or "Naik lok." Sir John Malcolm, in his work on Central India, quotes a legend by which the descent of the Bhills of those parts is traced to the union of Mahâdeva with a wood-nymph who relieved and comforted him when alone and weary in the forest. She bore him a large family, of whom one turned out a scamp, and was accordingly kicked out into the jungles, which have ever since been the patrimony of his descendants, the Bhills. In Khândesh, however, I have never met with this or any similar legend; and, as far as I could discover, the Bhills there look upon themselves as Autochthones. I believe they are several times mentioned in

* See Ind. Ant. vol. III. p. 130.

† Vide ante, vol. II. p. 76.

‡ Vide ante, vol. II. pp. 148, 201, 217, 251; vol. III. pp. 110, 178, 180, 186, 189, 223, 224, 228, 339.

Sanskrit writings, but am not in a position to give chapter and verse. Throughout Central and Southern Khândesh they are village watchmen and *shikâris*, and paid labourers for the cultivating and trading castes; often, indeed, under our "Reign of Law," reduced to a state of personal slavery or little better, and living under a yoke of stamped paper that enters into the soul of the poor demi-savage as bitterly as could fetters of iron. In the Sâtpurâ mountains to the north and the dense low-lying forests of the west they form often the whole population of remote jungle villages. To the east and south-east they give place to the Koli in the plains, and in the hills to the Târvi, but to the north-east they run on quite into British Nimâr, and how much further I know not. They are numerous along that part of the Sâtmala range in the south-west which lies between Châllsgâm and the great gap of Manmâr through which the G. I. P. Railway runs, and in that direction they extend as far south as the Pupâ District, but keeping (as far as my limited knowledge of the Nâsik and Ahmadnagar Collectories allows me to state) rather to the plains than to the Sahyâdri Hills, in which, I fancy, the presence of a much superior aboriginal race, the Hill Kôlis, leaves little room for them. Among a people thus scattered over a country nearly as large as Ireland, and subject to considerable variety of climate and nourishment,* there are naturally various types of appearance and even of character.

The Bhills of the Sahyâdri and Sâtmala are generally much superior in physique, features, and intelligence to those of the Sâtpurâs and Central Khândesh, and in the ranks of the Bhill Corps at Dharamgâm one may see, amongst dwarfish figures surmounted by faces which almost suggest the African, many well-built men, and even some tall and handsome ones with regular features and wavy hair.

Like most Indian races, whether Âryan or aboriginal, they are divided into *kâlas* or families having different surnames, but they don't mention these often, except in the case of the "Mewâs Chiefs" of the west, who are always spoken of by their family names of Wasâwâ, Walvi, Pârvi, &c.

Probably no race in this Presidency has given

more trouble to reduce to order, considering its numbers. The Marâthâs, never tolerant of forest tribes, appear to have treated the Bhills like wild beasts, and the latter seem to have heartily accepted the position, the result of which was a war of raids and dacoities on the one side, and extermination by all possible means on the other. The favourite manoeuvre of the Marâthâ leaders was to humbug their simple adversaries into coming in to make peace, and ratify the treaty with a grand carouse. "You know, Sâheb," said a Bhill in narrating one of these *coups*, "that our people can never resist an offer of liquor." The invariable 'grace after meat' of the entertainment was a wholesale massacre of the unsuspecting and intoxicated savages,—generally by precipitating them over a cliff or into wells. A race accustomed for several generations to regard these tactics as the main characteristic of organized government and civilized society might be expected to give trouble to the first British officers who came into contact with them. Accordingly the early history of Khândesh as a British district is one long record of devastating raids and fruitless pursuits varied with an occasional skirmish or execution. The Bhills derived great advantage from the natural wildness of parts of the country, the desolation to which all of it had been reduced by serving as a cockpit for the later wars of the Marâthâ empire, and the deadly unhealthiness of the jungle posts.

Of one of these, Nawapûr, there is a legend that after a certain detachment had been there for a few months the native civil official in charge carted in their arms and accoutrements to head-quarters with a brief and naïve report that the men were '*khalâs jhâlâ*' (expended); and even now native subordinates often resign when ordered there on duty. This state of things was finally terminated by the raising of the Khândesh Bhill Corps, and the adoption of measures to induce the Bhills to 'come in' for pardon and settle down to such cultivation as they could manage, in which the chief mover was the late General (then Captain) Outram, whose name is still famous among the people of Khândesh, and connected with a heap of legends which will no doubt justify some euhemerist of the future in proving him to be

* I remember a party of Bhills who committed a murder in Pupâ being "spotted" as wanderers from Khândesh by

the remains of their dinner, which contained food not entering into the diet of the local dangerous classes.

a Solar hero. From his time till now most of the district has had peace; but every now and then indications appear that the old spirit has not quite died out.

In 1857-8 a Bhil named Kajî Sîng raised a considerable force of rebels and plunderers in the north, and was only put down after a sharp action fought at Amba Pâni, in the Shâda Tâlnkâ; and within my own memory the differences of Bhil Chiefs with neighbouring Native States have three times threatened considerable disturbances. The last and most serious occasion was when the Gaikwâd was put in possession, in 1870, of a certain disputed territory called the Wajpûr Taraf, lying between the Nesi and Tapti rivers, which his officials immediately proceeded to administer in a manner that soon produced a state of things amounting to open rebellion in his territory, and organized mostrooping in the adjacent parts of ours. For the rest, the Bhil, if let alone and unexposed to the corrupting influences of civilization, is a good fellow enough, honest except for occasional dacoities undertaken under pressure of hunger or from *gaieté de cœur* (like French wars), truthful, generous and cheerful, and even at times industrious in a spasmodic way. His faults are a childish unsteadiness and fickleness, and a considerable taste for country spirits; but the race is certainly improvable. Major Forsyth has recorded a similar opinion from observation in Nimâr. It is hardly necessary to add that this race have never exercised any organized government. The petty chiefs of the "Dâng" and "Mewâs" States are indeed Bhills, though they "make-believe very much indeed" to be Râjpûts; but they are merely captains of bands of thieves crystallized and localized into so-called states by our conquest of the country, the troubles immediately preceding which had enabled them to acquire a certain amount of predatory power.

The Bhills cultivate in a fashion; and as there is much good waste land available they use the plough, and are not often reduced (within Khândesh proper) to the rude agriculture of the *kumri** system. Where they can, they often shift not only their fields but their villages. But their characteristic industries are those connected with their beloved jungles,

cutting and carrying timber, firewood, and bamboos; collecting lac and forest fruits; and the unremitting pursuit of almost every creature that hath life. They do not eat monkeys, and I have never myself known them to eat beef, but have every reason to believe that those of the remoter forests do so. With these exceptions almost everything is fish to the Bhil's net. I have seen them eat the grub of the Tusseh-silk moth; and their resources in the vegetable kingdom are equally extensive, including the bitter roots of certain water-lilies; and the fruit even of the *pimpal*-tree (*Ficus religiosa*). They have a saying of their own, "If all the world were to die of hunger, the Bhil would remain," which has a double meaning,—alluding firstly to their omnivorous palates, and secondly conveying a meaning like that of the Border motto "Thou shalt want ere I want." They use the pike, sword, and matchlock, but their distinguishing weapon is the bow, which those of the hills draw with some effect. The bow and arrow is the mark of a Bhil on any document. They have no separate constructed language, but possess a peculiar vocabulary of their own, which they are rather shy of imparting to any one else; and though I have sometimes imagined that I had got hold of peculiar words, I always found them in the end traceable to other languages. The words *Nîlog*, *Nûdag*, and *Nargi*, meaning 'a bear,' occur among all the hill-tribes of the Dekhan, and are not specially Bhil. One or two officers have at different times made notes of such words. The Bhills seldom ride, even on ponies; a few were enlisted into a cavalry regiment at Mâlegâin some years ago, but they mostly deserted. As infantry, however, they are capable of a certain amount of discipline; and the bravery, endurance, and fidelity of the Khândesh Bhil Corps have been long approved, while two generations of good living have improved the descendants of Outram's first recruits into a very fine race, and their hospital is perhaps a solitary instance among military medical establishments of the complete absence of a certain class of diseases.

In Western Khândesh there are three races often confounded with Bhills, but holding themselves separate and superior. The first are the Gâwîds or Mâwachas, whom I suspect

* *Kumri* or *Dhâl* is the *Dahya* of the Central Provinces, and consists in cutting down and burning the jungle and sowing in the ashes.

to be akin to the Kolis of the Sahyādrī, and would derive their name from a contraction of *udāvalāche* (sc. *lok*), 'men of the sunset.* They are chiefly confined to the high plateaux of the Pimpalner Tāluka, forming the northernmost outworks of the Sahyādrī range. They are rather tall and fair as compared with the other aboriginal tribes of Khāndesh; not very numerous, and live chiefly by cultivation; rude enough, but improvable; they are a quiet, well-behaved people, get drunk a little at times, tell the truth in inverse ratio to their prosperity and civilization, and seldom take Government service. They bury their dead, and often the deceased's personal property with him.

The Koṅkanis rank below the Gāwids, inhabit the same country, and resemble them in their way of living, but are dark and short, and more like the Thākūrs† of the Koṅkan in appearance than any other caste. They are, however, a much more settled race than the latter, and use the plough, which the Thākūrs seldom do. They say their ancestors came from the Koṅkan at some long-forgotten period. They bury their dead, and erect in their memory monolithic square pillars, sometimes as much as eight feet high above ground. They don't often take service or leave their villages, but many of them, as of the Gāwids, are *paṭils*. Neither of these have any distinctive dialect.

The Pauryas inhabit the north-western corner of the district between the crest of the Sātpurās and the Narmadā river. They are a very wild and shy race, but simple and well-behaved enough. They call themselves Paurya Bhil, Paurya Naik, and Paurya Kolī indifferently, but to my eye resemble in appearance the sea-Kolis of the Koṅkan. The men wear peculiar silver earrings with a square drop, the women huge necklaces of small pewter "bugle" beads. I have on a former occasion described the peculiarities of their dialect (*Ind. Ant.* vol. III. p. 250). The Tārvis are, in Khāndesh, a mixed race produced partly by conversion of Bhills to Islām, and partly by miscegenation of Bhills and Musalmāns,—a cross which shows very plainly on their features. They are a little more civilized than the Bhills, but their knowledge of Islām may be judged of from the fact that the greater number do not know

enough of a prayer to say over an animal that is being slaughtered. In Khāndesh proper they are nearly always attached to a village of settled races, of which they are sometimes the watchmen: but in British Nimār they are occasionally the only inhabitants of forest villages; e.g. of the two "Hattī States" of Jāmtī and Gadhi (each of which consists of a single village). They are tolerable *shikāris*, but bad cultivators, and in a general way combine the faults of both races. The late Major Forsyth attaches to the word Tārvi the signification of 'hereditary watchman.' After much inquiry from the best authorities, I cannot find that it is ever used in that sense in Khāndesh, or in any other than that which I have given above; but that most accurate and acute observer must have had grounds for his statement, and it is probable that they have adopted the name of an office as that of their race, just as the true Bhills delight in calling themselves "Naiks," a purely official name. Major Forsyth calls this caste "Muhammadan Bhills," and gives them a very bad character. They are very ready to take any service, are still rather given to theft, and were formerly great robbers. I remember an old Tārvi pointing out to me a deep glen in the Hattī hills with the remark "Many's the good herd of cattle I've hidden there in old days." They use the sword and matchlock, seldom the bow.

The Mewattis are not inhabitants of Khāndesh proper, but the tradition of their advent in the Sātmala hills bordering on it is so curious that I stretch a point to bring them in here. They are Musalmān mountaineers from Mewat, in Central India, and say that Ālamgir Pādshāh imported them to garrison the forts and hold the passes about Ajaṇṭā, where they inhabit fifty villages in the hills and forests. They are a very wild people, and extremely rough of speech, but honest and brave, and physically tall, strong and active, though as ugly of visage as a pack of satyrs. They live by rough cultivation and wood-cutting.

The Bhilālās‡ are a crossed race between the Bhills and caste-Hindus. They are found mostly in the Sātpurās, where they live by cultivation and wood-cutting, and are not remarkable for anything but their persistent assertion of superiority to the Bhills. A Bhi-

* Vide *Ind. Ant.* vol. III. p. 187.

† Vide vol. III. p. 189.

‡ See *Ind. Ant.* vol. III. p. 208.

Ilā pādīl once told me his village contained "thirty houses of our people, and twenty huts of Bhills;" but it needed the eye of faith to see any difference in the architecture, which was all of the ancient British, or wattle-and-dab order.

The Nahars live in the Sātpurā jungles bordering on Holkar's Nimār. They are said to be close akin to Bhills, but some of them at least are Musalmāns. They are not numerous, and I never met them but once.

There are some Gonds who are wandering cowherds, and have their head-quarters chiefly about Chālisgām. They speak Marāṭhi, at least to other people, and don't seem to keep up any connexion with Gondwānā.

The Musalmāns resemble those of the Dekhan, but are more lazy and debauched. Jews, Christians, and Pārsis are scarce, all immigrants, and no way remarkable.

These notes would hardly be complete without some remarks on the antiquities of the district. The most ancient and noticeable remains,—the Buddhist caves of Ajantā and other places in the Sātmala hills,—nearly all lie in territory belonging to H. H. the Nizām, but are most easily approached from British Khândesh. Ajantā has been frequently described, most recently in the *Indian Antiquary* (vol. III. pp. 25, 269). The easiest approach is *via* Pachora, a station of the G. I. P. Railway, from which it is seventeen miles to Shendurnī, the jāghir village of the Dikshit family, connected by marriage with the Peshwās. I think one of them was also the spiritual preceptor of the last of that dynasty. From the camping-place at Shendurnī, where there is a pretty modern temple, it is eighteen miles to Fardapur—evidently a place of importance in Mughul days, as commanding the northern entrance to the Ajantā Pass, but now consisting of a heap of ruins and mud huts huddled under the walls of a huge imperial sarāī, and garrisoned by half a dozen ragged Rohillas. The pass is still fortified by a massive wall and tall gateway at its crest; the caves lie in the ravine of Lenapur away to the right, five miles from the travellers' bungalow at Fardapur. I am not myself aware of any remains in the Sātmalas east of Ajantā, but ten miles to the westward and six from Shendurnī are the hill-forts of

Beitulbārā (*vide* p. 108) to Waisagaḍh. The former is occupied by a garrison of jealous Arabs, the latter deserted. Local tradition says that it was built by "Rāja Tirthā," who was a "Gauli Rāja." Most of the existing works are Musalmān; but one tower in the centre bears the device of a winged monster shaking an elephant as if he were a rat,—which occurs also, I believe, upon the walls of the ancient Gond capital of Chanda, and of Sagargaḍh in the North Kōḥkan. In the scarps of this fort and of the *khora* or ravine to the east of it are several caves. They were described to Dr. Wilson by Captain Rose (*Jour. Bomb. Br. R. As. Soc.* January 1853, p. 360) as being now dedicated, one to Padreśvara, and others to Hidimba the Rākshasa wife of Bhīma the Pāṇḍava, and her son by him, Ghatotkach. The cave of Ghatotkach, measuring fifty cubits square, is probably the largest *vihāra* in India; and the whole group, with those mentioned by Captain Rose as existing at Beitulbārā and Jinjala, deserve fuller investigation and description than they have yet received. Captain Rose also supplied Dr. Wilson with notes on the Patna caves, which have since been more fully described by myself and visited by Dr. Bhāu Dāji; but a few round the western scarps of the Patna valley still remain uninvestigated, as also the cave on the Gotala pass above Wargām, ten miles east of Chālisgām, mentioned by me in the same paper (*Ind. Ant. ubi supra*). The only caves which I know of in Khândesh north of the Sātmala are those of Bhamer (*vide Ind. Ant.* vol. II. p. 128); but about eight miles east of them, in the ugly wilderness called the Pan river fuel reserves, there is a village called Vhergām, a name which generally indicates the neighbourhood of caves, and perhaps may in this instance. In the same neighbourhood, at Bhamer itself, and at Wargām and other villages on the Bara Dhara plateau north of Nizāmpūr, are several "Hemād Panti" temples of some size and beauty, generally half ruined and quite deserted, as is also one at Nawapur, below the ghāṭs; but these are, to the best of my belief, the only ancient Hindu temples in the district; and the inclusion of Burhanpur in Nimār leaves it almost equally poor in Musalmān architecture, of which the best specimens are the tombs at Jhālner. These are locally said to have been built by "a Senapati of Hol-

kar's," which I don't believe. The principal one, about thirty feet square, has walls six feet thick pierced with windows, not only in the four sides, but at the angles also; a *tour de force* which requires good masonry, as the outermost angles of the walls are left quite without vertical support above the windows. There is a pretty tomb at Parola. I think it was in it that a friend of mine discovered an inscription interesting if not antique:—"Private ———, —Com-

pany — Battalion 1st Royal Scots. On the sober tack till St. Patrick's day; 2nd March 1818." The Royal Scots formed part of Sir T. Hislop's force which reduced this country in that year. I don't think there are any ancient remains of any sort in the Sâtpura except the tank on the Jusan Mal hill, said to have been made by the god Goraknâth, and a few forts, which, with all the other old forts in the district, are ascribed to the mythical Gauli Râj.*

SPECIMENS OF THE MAITHILI OR TIRHUTI DIALECT OF TIRHUT.

BY S. W. FALLON, PH. D. HALL, INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS.

Râm ka byâh. [Mixed Tirhûti.]

Aj sobha Janak mandir,
Chal-ahut dekhan châhu, he!
Subh ghari, subh din mangal,
Harakhi sakal samâj, he!
Jânki ka dulah Raghubar (5)
Dhanukh tûtal aj, he!
Paral nagar hakâr ghar ghar,
Chalali gâini nâri, he
Sâji dâla, pân, chânan,
Dip chânu-mukh lesi, he! (10)
Kâhu sakhi lei dâbhi, akchbat,
Kâhu anjan bâth, he!
Kâhu sir par kalas mangal,
Chal-ahu jahân Raghunâth, he!
Pratham subh subh gâwi sakhi sabh, (15)
Del chânan, pân, he!
Chât mârî, nâhî an-al,
Dhail subh-dhani nâk, he!
Chalali sabhe gaj-râj kâmini,
Del sindur dhâr, he! (20)
Âni thak, bak, pât, bhâlari,
Del chitâur-hâr, he!
Jânki ke pûr-al manorath,
Janak sahîr samâj, he.
Joti Nariin hirdai barchit, (25)
Dev bânjan bân, he!

The marriage of Râma.

This day is Jânki's palace bright,—
Come, hasten all who will and see!
Auspicious hour, auspicious day of joy!
Rejoice the whole assembled throng!
Jânki's bridegroom, Raghubar,
The bow hath broke this day.
In all the town, from house to house,
[Joyful] huzzas arose and spread.
The women singing go along,
With pân and chandan neatly placed,
And four-wicked lighted lamp;
Some maidens bear the dâb and rice,
And some the lamp-black in their hands;
Some joyous kalas bearing on their heads:
Go all to where is Raghunâth.
First all the maids their benisons sing,
[Then] betel-leaf and chandan give.
The women slap and bring him in.
The leader [then] doth pull his nose.
With elephantine grace the love-
Inspiring train all move along,
Dropping sandal a line they trace.
[Then make they sport of him as thus:—]
A thak [is rattled in his ear]§,
A cotton bird [before him's thrown],
On plantain stem and leaves [feet-squeezed],

* I have here to correct an error in the former part of these notes, p. 109, where the scientific name of the common Maina is given as *Gracula religiosa*. It is *Acridotheres tristis*; *Gracula religiosa*, I think, the black Maina with yellow wattles. I find, too that Mr. Loch, in his *Historical Account of Ajmer*, Nâsik, and Kâshmir, p. 5) derives the name Dândî or Dândî from Prince Dandî; son of the Emperor Akbar, who ruled the country in 1600 A.D. and following years.

† The figures in this and the following notes refer to the lines.—2 Chal-ahu, H. chalo. 6 tû-al, H. tora. 7 paral, H. para; hakâr, notes, report, H. ha-hâ-kâr.—In this word we have the derivation of *harkâr*, a messenger. 8 Chalali, H. chali. 10 Lesi, having lighted, H. (lakh flame)

lekh-kâ hâl-ke. 11 Lei, H. li.

‡ Kalas, a ghara of water, containing also a sprig (pallo) of a mango branch, a betel-nut, and a silver or copper coin, with some tyre (dâk) encircled with leaves placed on the cover, and a garland of flowers hung round the neck of the ghara. 15 Gâwi, having sung, H. gâ-ke. 16 del, H. dyâ. 17 chât, H. chameta; an-al, H. le hye. 18 dha-il, seized, East H. dhar lya; subh-dhani, the leader of the company of women. 21 Âni, H. lâl-ke; thak, H. dibba, or box with a pebble in it; bak, heron, paddy-bird; H. bagla (of cotton); bhâlari, the stem of the plantain, H. kole ka bîr. 22 chitâur, a strong-scented flower, said to cause fainting, H. chita, *Plumbago Zeylanica*. 23 pûr-al, H. pûra hua. § He is requested to mind that he must obey his wife.

[Thrown in a faint] with the *chitaur*,
Fulfilled is Jānki's heart's desire,
And Janak's and the multitude.
Beams from Narāin all hearts made glad,
The gods upon their harps do play.

Mahādeva ka byāh.

[This song is in the pure Tirbuti dialect.]

Āge* māi! ehān umat bar lai-la.
Hemat-giri† dekhi dekhi laga-ichh rang.
Ehān umat bar ghora bo na charba ik,
Jehi ghora rang rang jang.
Bāghak chhāl je basaha palānal (5)
Sāpak bhīr-al tang.
Dimiki dimiki je dāmara baja-in,
Khaṭar khaṭar karu ang.
Bhakar bhakar je bhāng bhakosa-thi,
Chaṭar paṭar karu gāl. (10)
Chānan soñ anurāg-al thikain,
Bhasam charhāwa-thi ang.
Bhūt piśāch anek dal sāj-al,

Sir soñ bahi gel Gang.
Bhana-hiñ Bidyāpati,‡ suniye Manāin,§ (15)
Thikāha digambar bhang.

The marriage of Mahādeva.

Oh, heavens! *such* a fool for a husband brought!
The father looks and looks, in wonder lost;—
A lout who cannot even ride a horse
Who's been in all his paces broken in;
Stretched on a bullock is a lion's skin,
A snake strapped round to serve for girth;
He rattling keeps a pebble in a box,
Crack, crack, [his bones all in] his body go;
Gobble, gobble, lumps of *bhang* go down,
Flop, flop, chuck, chuck, his [swollen] chops
both go,
Decked out with painted streaks of sandalwood,
Begrimed with ashes o'er his body all,
Arrayed a cloud of demons various, see;
The [river] Ganges flowing from his head;
'Tis Bidyāpati sings, listen Manāin.
Patience, [it is the god] "digambar bhang."

NICOBARESE HIEROGLYPHICS OR PICTURE-WRITING.

BY V. BALL, M.A., F.G.S., GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA.

In the somewhat extensive literature of the Nicobar Islands and their inhabitants, which consists of numerous though much scattered papers, I can find but little allusion to, and no adequate description of, the hieroglyphic devices which are so common a feature in Nicobarese houses.

The subject appears to me to be deserving of more than a mere passing notice when viewed in connection with the discoveries which have been made of somewhat similar but prehistoric figures engraven on stones, bones, and other substances.

As the Andamanese may be said to have not progressed in civilization beyond that stage which was represented by the people of the 'Stone' Periods of Europe, so the Nicobarese, who are much less savage and degraded than their neighbours of the Andamans, may justly be compared

with the inhabitants of Europe in the 'Bronze' Period||—their villages, erected on posts below high-water mark, alone serving to suggest a comparison with the lake dwellings of Switzerland and other countries.

The example of Nicobarese hieroglyphics represented in the accompanying illustration was obtained by me in the year 1873 on the island of Kondul, where I found it hanging up in the deserted house of a man who was stated to have died a short time before.

Before removing it I obtained the consent of some of the villagers, who seemed amused at my wishing for it. Sundry bottles of rum, some cheroots and rupees, enabled me to collect a goodly number of images, weapons, utensils, &c. but these, more than incidentally, I do not propose to describe at present.

While fully recognizing the possibility of this

* 1 Āge, H. ho! Lai-la, H. āya.
† The father of Pārvatī.—2 Laga-ichh, H. lagta hai.
3 ghora bo, H. ghora bhī; ik, H. ke. 4 jang, pace, H. chāl. 5 bāgh-ak chhāl, H. bāgh ka chhāl; basaha, Eastern Hindi bumba; Western Hindi nādi, nādis, a bullock with the rudiments of a fifth, and sometimes sixth and seventh leg, esteemed sacred as carrying Śiva on his back; palān-al, H. bichhāya (Persian pālān, a paanier). 6 Bhīr-al, H. kasa, drawn tight. 7 baja-in, H. bajta hai. 8 Karu, H. karo. 9 bhakosa-thi, H. bhakosta hai, gobbles. 11 chānan, H. chandan; anurāg-al, adorned, H. sañwāra.

thika-in (honoric form), H. haiñ. 12 Charhāwa-thi, H. charhāta hai. 13 sūj-al, H. suja hua. 14 Gel, H. gra. 15 bhana-hiñ, H. kahte haiñ.

‡ In Tirbut, Bidyāpati is said to have been a brother-in-law of Rāja Pratāp Singh, of Rāj Durhangah. Mahādeva (Śiva) is said to have been wont to dance with Bidyāpati.

§ The mother of Pārvatī.—16 Thikāha (honoric form), H. haiñ.

|| I have a Nicobarese spear-head made of copper. Ordinarily iron, obtained from ships, is used for making their spears.

painted screen not being intended to be more than an ornamental object, as the wooden images of men which are commonly to be seen in Nicobarese houses are believed to be,* there are several features about it which lead me to the conclusion that it is really a record of some event, and I therefore believe that the following account will not be uninteresting to some of the readers of the *Indian Antiquary*.

The original is now in Europe, but a photograph, from which the accompanying illustration is taken, represents faithfully its appearance. The material of which it is made is either the *glume* of a bamboo or the *spathe* of a palm which has been flattened out and framed with split bamboos. It is about three feet long by eighteen inches broad. The figures are painted with vermilion, their outlines being surrounded with punctures which allow the light to pass through. Suspended from the frame are some young cocoanuts and fragments of dried hogs'-flesh.

As in all such Nicobarese paintings which I have either seen or heard of, figures of the sun, moon and stars occupy prominent positions. Now the sun and moon are stated by those who have known the Nicobarese best to be especial objects of adoration, and therefore this document may have some religious significance; but, as these particular figures occur in all, they may perhaps be regarded as the orthodox heading for even purely civil records.

At first it occurred to me that this was merely an inventory of the property of the deceased, but as some of the objects are certainly not such

as we should expect to find in an enumeration of property—e.g. the lizard—while the figures of human beings appear to portray particular emotions, it seems probable that the objects represented have a more or less conventional meaning, and that we have here a document of as *bona fide* and translatable a character as any hieroglyphic inscription from Egypt.

My own efforts to discover an interpretation from the natives on the spot were not crowned with success. I have now to regret that I did not persevere, as some of the more intelligent and intelligible natives near the settlement at Kamorta would probably have been able to explain the meaning of the signs.

The following is a list of the objects depicted; besides animals, many of the common utensils in use in a Nicobarese household are included:—

1. The sun.
2. The moon.
3. Swallows or (?) flying fish.
4. Impression of the forepart of a human foot.
5. A lizard or (?) crocodile.
6. Three men in various attitudes.†
7. Two *dás* for cutting jungle.
8. Earthen cooking-pots.
9. Two birds.
10. An axe.
11. Two spears.
12. Possibly a ladder.
13. Dish for food.
14. Coconut water-vessels.
15. Palm-tree.
16. A canoe.
17. Three pigs.
18. Shed for drying fruit of *Pandanus*.
19. Domestic fowl.
20. Seaman's chest.
21. Dog.
22. Fish of different kinds.
23. Turtle.

SÂNTÂLÍ SONGS, WITH TRANSLATIONS AND NOTES.

COMMUNICATED BY REV. J. MURRAY MITCHELL, LL.D.

I formerly communicated some Mundari-Kolh songs, translated from the German version of the Rev. Th. Jellinghaus. These appeared in the *Indian Antiquary* for February last (pp. 51 ff.). I have now the pleasure of forwarding both the original and the translation of a few Sântâlî songs,—or fragments of several songs, more probably. Explanatory notes are added. The whole has been kindly supplied, at my request, by Mr. A. Campbell, of the Free Church Mission, Pachamba.

Mr. Jellinghaus lived chiefly at Râncî, and

though he does not mention the precise locality in which the person resided from whom he obtained the Mundari songs which he translated, it probably was in the district near Râncî. Mr. Campbell resides about 120 miles to the east of this.

The evidence of language proves incontestably the close connection of the Munda-Kolhs and the Sântâls.

Sântâlî Song.

1. Netem tema Piyo cheîreû, koîe tema daura
dâka,
Saraiû me Piyo, sagunaiû me.

* Inquiry on the spot led me to the conclusion that these images are no more idols than are the oil-paintings of our ancestors with which our houses are adorned.

† The first of these is numbered by mistake on the plate as '5.'

NIKOBARESE

HIEROGLYPHICS.



- Jhih beŭă perâ duar, saraiñ me, Piyo, sâ-
gunaiñ me.
2. Ulŭhaura : petei : kate, loŭa da : re topoe pa,
Moñre dhaute nirchi po.
Moñre goŭei : sârjom sakâm re sindur do red
pe.
Moñre dhaute ŭikâg pe, tyomte, "Hari bol"
pe.
3. Dini tale, mai tale, dini tale bite tale
Sadom re le deŭeya, chbatartele numuletale.
4. Napum, mai, chotda ŭaka, neŭgam neŭga
netat :
Chet : hirir garir mai, chet : bâm bârô.
5. Demaiñ delâmaiñ târam târam ben.
Khurthia sadom doe han hanao : kan.
Heñ dâdâ hape dâdâ, hape tangi liñ me.
Bonsiya bajâr do parom kuliñ me.
6. Buru re Richi cheireñ dayâ gi râgâ dayâ gi.
Tala ñinda hâra re Richi cheireñ dayagi râgâ
dayâ gi.
Sanañ me.
7. Rid rid me mai marpitad me,
Lawatam lodâm chhal paŭ rangiwatâm.
8. Nai gitil talare kukruchu : baha bareñ ku-
kruchu : baha.
Gaŭa gitil talare sikiyom baha bareñ siki-
yom baha.
9. Nayo go bâm mâyâ lena, nayo go bâm dâyâ
lena,
Nayo go neŭgâ nitat : lagit : gi, nayo gom
nidigidi kadiña.
10. Babâ re bâm dâyâ lena, babâ re bâm mâyâ
lena.
Babâ re moñre ŭakalagit : babâ rem nidigidi
kadiña.
11. Bareñ re bâm dâyâ lena, baba re bâm mâyâ
lena,
Bareñ bareñtat : lagit gi, bareñ rem nidigidi
kadiña.

* The Pio is a small hawk with a peculiarly pleasant cry. If heard on the left of a marriage party on its way to the bride's residence, it is considered a good omen, but if on the right a bad one.

† The bridegroom's father carries a large basketful of rice with him, for the use of the guests; and if at the time the Pio is heard on the left he is carrying the rice in his right hand, it is an additional token for good.

‡ Has reference to the Jag Manjhi (the guardian of the morals of the young men and maidens), who is master of ceremonies at marriages, and who provides a small branch from a mango tree, with which the bridegroom sprinkles water over the bride.

§ The bridegroom dips the branch in a *loŭâ*—brass water-vessel—and sprinkles the bride.

|| Red lead mixed with a little oil is wrapped up in five *edl* leaves and given to the bridegroom, who marks the bride five times on the forehead with the little finger of the right

12. Ohai! niñgaiñ hoñ banugi, Ohai! napum
hoñ banugi.

Ohai sâto sai naŭwa! Ohai! dâr redo nâp
kaiñ me.

13. Rañ, chareñ : pitar phuru : Chândojonomdom
nemâdiñ.

Chânde nindin lagit gi, Chândom kumâyayen.

14. Moñre paila nera tabenaiñ me, nera tabenaiñ
me.

Moñre paila nera chauleyaiñ me, nera chau-
leyaiñ me.

15. Siñ bir do nera sendera ho, nera sendera ho.

Maŭ : bir do, nera karekâ ho, nera karekâ ho.

16. Nai parom gaŭa parom ŭuŭa mândariya
ho, ŭuŭa mândariya.

Nai parom gaŭa parom Beserako kuŭi ho
Beserako kuŭi.

Translation.

1. On the left hand the Pio bird,* on the right
a basket of rice.†

Give me a good token, Pio, give me a good
omen.

Give me a good token, Pio, for my big boy
at my friend's door; give me an omen.

2. Break a branch from a mango tree, ‡ and
dip it in a *loŭâ* of water.

Five times sprinkle with water, §

Wrap up the red lead in five folds of *edl* leaves ||.

Mark five times with red lead, and then
shout "Hari bol."

3. Give to us our daughter, give to us our
daughter.

We shall place her on horseback, and shade
her with an umbrella. ¶

4. Daughter, your father has received piled
rupees.* Daughter, your mother too has
received her present.†

Why ran hiding hither and thither, daughter?
why so reluctant? ‡

hand. What remains in the leaves after this has been done
is applied by pressing the leaves on the forehead; after
which all present shout "Hari bol," very few knowing the
meaning of it.

¶ This is understood to refer to the bride having a real or
feigned reluctance to go with the bridegroom and his party.
The bridegroom's party address themselves to the bride's
party in the above words.

* It is customary among Sântals for the bridegroom to
give the bride's father a sum of money in rupees, which
are placed one above the other in a pile.

† The mother of the bride also receives a small acknow-
ledgment, generally cloth.

‡ The bride often runs hiding in all conceivable places,
from a real or feigned unwillingness to accompany her
husband to his home; and the singers ask, Why, seeing
that your father has received money, and your mother a
present, do you not go home joyfully with your husband?

5. Bring our daughter.* Daughter, come quickly, come quickly,
The Khurthia horse is neighing.†
Yes, brother, tarry for us; brother, see us through Bonsiya bazâr.‡
6. On the hill the Richi bird calls in heart-ravishing notes;
At midnight in the valley the Richi bird calls sweetly.
Give to me my wish.§
7. Spin, spin, daughter, clean the cotton;
Bring Lodam bark to dye the border. ||
8. In the sand of the Dâmodâ the Kukruchu flower,¶ brother, the Kukruchu flower.
In the sand of the river the Sikiyom flower, brother, the Sikiyom flower.
9. Mother dear, you have shown no pity!
Mother dear, you have had no compassion!
Mother dear, for the sake of the marriage present you have given me away!
10. O father, you have shown no compassion!
O father, you have had no pity!
O father, for the sake of five rupees you have thrown me away!
11. O brother, you have had no pity! O brother, you have shown no compassion!
Brother, for the sake of the marriage present* you have given me away.
12. Alas, my mother is not! Alas, my father is not!
Oh, ye seven hundred dancers of the sword and shield dance!
Oh, place me on a branch!†
13. Solder, *chareî*, brass *lotâ*; ‡ God gave me being.
God, for so many days, God, then to me hast been unpitying.§
14. Wife, husk for me five *pîlas* of rice; wife, husk me rice.
Wife, five *pîlas* of *taben*|| give me, *taben* give me.
15. Sing jungle, wife! a hunting, hark! wife, a hunting, hark!
Matt jungle, wife! a large hunting party, hark! a large hunting party, hark!
16. Across the Dâmodâ, across the river, the Tûḍa musicians, ho! the Tûḍa musicians.
Across the Dâmodâ, across the river, the Besera girls, ho! the Besera girls.¶

CASTE INSIGNIA.

BY CAPT. J. S. F. MACKENZIE, MAISUR COMMISSION.

The following translation of a Canarese document tells its own story:—

"At a marriage ceremony a dispute having

* This is addressed by the bridegroom's party to the bride's party.

† It is impossible to say what the Khurthia horse is. Some say a wild jungle horse. It may have some connection with the horse already mentioned, upon which they propose to convey the bride to her new home.

‡ The bride entreats them to tarry till she is ready. She uses the singular—'brother'; but the Sântâls understand it to apply to the whole party.

§ I am not certain whether this line is correctly translated or not. *Sana* is 'wish,' *Sinatâ* me 'give me my wish.' It does not, however, show any connection with what goes before; and it may have some other meaning which I have been unable to find out.

|| Refers to the "Sâr" or garment worn by Sântâl females. It has a narrow border of a red colour, which is obtained from a jungle tree called by the Sântâls *Lodam*. I have seen in Col. Dalton's *Ethnology* that the Sântâls as a race have no acquaintance with the art of weaving. In this district, in almost every village there are one or more looms, and the cloth worn by the women is almost entirely manufactured by themselves. There are one or two songs like the above referring to weaving, which makes me think them not so ignorant of it as is generally supposed.

¶ This flower is the same as is called by us the Cockcomb. It is with the Sântâls much as the thistle is with us. Immense quantities of it are grown in every village. It is the favourite flower of the young women, who may almost always be seen with it stuck in their hair. So far as I know, it does not grow in river-beds, and I cannot account

arisen between the right and left hand castes of Heggadevanakote and Madras, it was referred to Kanchi (Conjeveram) and there settled.

for the two being connected as they are here. The Sikiyom is not known to Europeans at home.

* In some cases the eldest brother of the bride is presented with a piece of cloth.

† This is understood by Sântâls to be sung by a young woman whose parents are dead and who is desirous of being married. The last clause is a figurative expression for "marry me into a good family."

‡ This means here everything, as we might say, or, 'big and little.' It is something like the Hindu "Naukar chakar." *Chareî* is a species of spear-grass, with which leaf-plates are pinned together.

§ The verse is understood to be sung by a girl who has been married against her will. All the marriage guests have eaten and drunken, and the bride is about to be conveyed to her husband's house. In the latter part she complains that God, who gave her being, has since become unmerciful to her. From the construction of the sentence it is impossible to say from what time God has been unmerciful. Those whom I have consulted think it refers to the time of her marriage, and not to that of her birth.

|| *Taben* is a kind of prepared rice. When soft after having been half-boiled, it is put into the *dashî* and flattened. It is then called *taben*.

¶ The meaning of the foregoing is said to be that the arts of singing and dancing were introduced among the Sântâls by the clans Tûḍa and Besera, whose habitation was beyond the Dâmodâ. There is a legend giving a description of two men coming upon the gods and goddesses dancing in the jungle.

The following is an account of the insignia proper to castes, as given in the Kanchi records.

"This copy was written, in the presence of Collector Coleman and Danapān Sheṭṭi, by the heads of castes, with their full approval:—

"Dated 17th April 1807.

"The insignia of the 'nadu-deshada':—

"White umbrella—white horse—'Chamara (fans)—'Pal-pavada' (cloths spread before one)—day-torch (*i.e.* torches by daylight)—'Mōre' (a kind of harp)—dancing girls—red turban—trumpets—'Jayamaru' (an ornament set with precious stones)—white flag—kettle-drums—the insignia of merchants—the lion-flag—'Hanumanta palu'—five-coloured flag—the bull-flag—the holy-coloured (yellow) tent—bell and chain—'Mantappa, &c. Saṅga Maheśvaraṇa throne—necklace of snakes:—all these are proper to the right hand.

1. Telega Ballāla Sheṭṭi,—The 'haṁsa.'
2. Do. Kuraba,—The conch shell.
3. Bridara,—The 'ganda bhīrunda' (a fabulous bird having a double head and which lived on elephants), twelve poles and four corners.
4. Yepe (oilmen),—Fish.
5. Kōṇakārā —? ?
6. Idigaru,—A ladder.
7. Gujarāt Mochi,—A flag of five colours; an ensign with Nimosa Suma.
8. Nayamora—A turtle.
9. Waḍḍāru,—A spade.
10. Karnātaka Mochi,—A red flag.
11. Gollaru,—A silver stick used in churning.
12. Goudas,—A plough.
13. Karnātaka Kuraba,—A black flag.
14. Teliga,—'Naga varhna,' a cobra coiled up with head erect.
15. Jalagaru,—Lotus flower.
16. Korama Sheṭṭi,—The string used to tie up a bag.
17. Christians,—A currycomb !!!
18. Bhattaru (bards),—A silver stick.
19. Courtézans,—Cupid.
20. Dōlegaru,—Cupid.
21. Maddale Kara (drummers who use both hands),—Drum.
22. Bestaru (fishermen),—Net.
23. Badabudake,—A pearl-oyster.
24. Tera-Kula,—A pearl.
25. Telegaru,—A trident-flag.

26. Marama pujāri (*i.e.* priest to the village goddess),—The dress worn when performing service.

27. Nere-Koramaru,—A dog.

28. Madivala (washermen),—'Ubbi' (the pot in which clothes are boiled).

29. Telaga Hajāmaru,—The pipe used by snake-charmers.

30. Komtegaru,—in eleven 'kambas' (poles) three corners.

31. Nagatara,—A dancing-girl, eleven kambas and three corners.

32. Padigara,—Fire; 2nd, jackal; 3rd, a fly-brush.

33. Upāra,—Flowers.

34. Vajara (carpenters),—An eagle or kite; eleven poles and three corners (only allowed to go in procession in their own street).

35. Kocha-Kuraba, Mohout,—A peacock; 2nd, a bear; 3rd, an antelope.

36. Ane-Samagaru,—The insignia of the Mochis; a boy's kite.

37. Mahānadi Maranna,—The chief necklace.

38. Dombaru,—Pole and knife.

39. Tigala-Kumbaru,—The potter's wheel.

40. Devangada,—Flowers, eleven poles and three corners.

41. Heggā-Negaru,—Five-coloured flag, eleven poles and three corners.

"The left-hand caste have eleven kambas and three corners—canopy—a black cloth over the centre of the canopy when carried during a marriage ceremony or other great occasions. At twelve o'clock at night they may ride a black horse in their own street, to which processions are confined. If there are any dancing-girls in their caste they may dance. If there are any washermen they may wash for them. The horn of a buffalo—drum: the ring over which the skin of the drum is stretched may be of silver if they have the means.

"Besides the above to which the *nadu-deshada* are entitled. As the white umbrella and the *palpavada* (spreading of cloths) are the highest honours, *sanyāsīs*, gods, and princes are entitled to them.

"Whoever takes an insignia to which he is not entitled, his family will surely die."

The eleven poles refer to the number allowed to be used to support the *pandal* erected in the

street and before the house where a marriage is taking place. The usual number is twelve, but some castes are restricted to eleven.

'Three corners' refers to the canopy carried

over the young couple during the marriage procession. In general all four corners are supported, but some castes are only allowed to support three.

MAHĒŚVARA, IN MĀLWĀ.

BY RĀOJĪ VĀSUDEVA TULLU, M.A., INDOR.

Maheśvara is an important city in Nemāḍa, on the banks of the Narmadā, and is believed to be second only to Indor in size and population in H. H. the Mahārāja Holkar's territories. Maheśvara was for a long time the capital of the Holkar family, and had attained a position of note in the time of Ahalyā Bāī, one of the few model female rulers of India. "Maheśvara," says Major-General Sir John Malcolm, in his *Memoir of Central India* (vol. I. p. 14), "must be considered the principal and almost only place of note in Nemāḍa. This ancient city, which is pleasantly situated on the northern bank of the Narmadā, with a fort elevated above the town, has long been, as well as its attached lands, accounted a distinct portion of territory,—probably from having been under the immediate management of the head of the Holkar family when it was their capital. That benefit which it formerly derived from being the residence of Ahalyā Bāī is now given to it as containing the ashes of that great and venerated woman. Public buildings of different kinds are erecting, and a most spacious and highly finished flight of stone steps from the town to the river—meant, with the adjoining temples, to be dedicated to her memory—is nearly completed."

Having had an opportunity of seeing these buildings, I propose in this paper to give some account of them.

Most of the buildings are temples; as the northern bank of the Narmadā is studded with them, a boating excursion is the most convenient for seeing them in a short time. The temples are all built of stone, and generally crown the summit of the hill or rock on which the fort of Maheśvara is situated. They are masterpieces of Hindu art, and though most of them are more than a century old they appear as fresh and strong as if newly built. Scarcely an inch of surface is devoid of carving. Generally there are ghāṭs leading from the banks of the river to the ridge on which the temples are situated. On these is a good deal of sculpture.

Besides the many curves and flourishes that deck the stone slabs of the steps, there are scenes of daily life carved with artistic skill:—bands of players and musicians, hunting parties, marriage processions, singing and dancing girls, fights of bulls and elephants, pairs of lovers, scenes of war, &c. &c., all carved in the liveliest style. But, deservedly, the most esteemed is the magnificent tomb or *chhatra* of Ahalyā Bāī. To give the reader an adequate idea of her greatness, I proceed to extract from Malcolm's *Memoir* an account of her character:—"The character of her administration was for more than thirty years the basis of the prosperity which attended the dynasty to which she belonged; and, although latterly it was obscured by the genius and success of Mahādūji Sindya, it continued to sustain its rank during her life as one of the principal branches of the Marāṭhā empire Her great object was, by a just and moderate government, to improve the condition of the country while she promoted the happiness of her subjects. She maintained but a small force independent of the territorial militia; but her troops were sufficient, aided by the equity of her administration, to preserve internal tranquillity; and she relied on the army of the state, actively employed in Hindustān and the Dekhan, and on her own reputation, for safety against all external enemies Ahalyā Bāī sat every day, for a considerable period, in open darbār, transacting business. Her first principle of government appears to have been moderate assessment, and an almost sacred respect for the native rights of village officers and proprietors of lands. She heard every complaint in person, and although she continually referred causes to courts of equity and arbitration, and to her ministers for settlement, she was always accessible; and so strong was her sense of duty on all points connected with the distribution of justice, that she is represented as not only patient, but unwearied, in the investigation of the most insignificant

causes, when appeals were made to her decision It appears above all extraordinary how she had mental and bodily powers to go through with the labours she imposed upon herself, and which from the age of thirty to that of sixty, when she died, were unremitted. The hours gained from the affairs of the state were all given to acts of devotion and charity; and a deep sense of religion appears to have strengthened her mind in the performance of her worldly duties." Such was the venerated A h a l y ā B ā i, who, though a woman, maintained for thirty years (1765-95) the utmost tranquillity in her dominions at a time when the country was disturbed with wars from one end to the other. Her charitable foundations extend all over India, from the snow-crowned Himālayas to Cape Kumārī in the south, and from Somanāth in Gujarāt to the temple of Jagannāth in the east. The ghāt known as that of A h a l y ā B ā i,—from the river to the noble tomb erected to her memory,—is spacious, and consists of a number of flights of steps decorated with carvings of the sort already described. At the top of these is a spacious quadrangle enclosed on all sides by four massive stone buildings, each two stories high, richly embossed with carving. At one corner is another flight of steps leading to the main building. Here as we pass up we find to the left a dark stone slab in the wall of the building containing an inscription, to be noticed below. Above this is an open courtyard in front of the tomb. Entering this, we come first to a spacious hall. Inside is the līṅga of M a h ā d e v a, as in ordinary temples. And behind this, close to the wall, is a marble half-size image of the queen A h a l y ā B ā i. The dome covering this temple is equally rich in carving, having a dozen concentric circles of carving leading up to the top. There are staircases on either side round massive stone pillars, leading to the outside of the dome, where there is a splendid terrace commanding a view of the adjacent buildings and the river below.

The inscription above referred to is as follows:—

॥ श्रीगणेशाय नमः ॥ श्रीरजराजेश्वराय नमः ॥ श्रीनर्मदायै नमः ॥
अस्ति क्षमाक्षेत्रदक्षिणार्धे विष्णुसहस्रनाममालायां ।
श्रीश्रीपद्माभीषणैकपादां देशः जिने होलकरोन्मायायां ॥१॥
समजनि जिवमलो यव महादिनाया दशमहरिचरित्रो मोधि-
भोगानपवः ।

जकजितपुष्ये राजमानः सद्ये सदसिद्धतुष्कान्यस्तुष्का-
शकार ॥ २ ॥

यत्तदात्मा तदनूनविकमी विष्णुविरेजे यदनंतमोगमाह ।
स्वदिवतद्वैतया च खंडेरावाभिर्वा स्तां प्रथयन् पृथिव्याम् ॥ ३ ॥
या तद्वभूवपुषाश्रयती तदीयधर्माननुपालयती ।
अवेर्वतिष्ठस्य कलत्रमत्र संस्मारयती विमलैश्वर्यैः ॥ ४ ॥
बलादिलायां कलिनिग्रहाय गृहीतभूपालकलप्रदेश ।
साक्षादहंवाभिधया च तुल्या जनावनावाविरभूतवन्धाम् ॥ ५ ॥
यस्तां महादेवताप्रसादान्महादेवतामवाप्य ।
श्रीशीलशोषादिगुणैरुदारः श्रीमान्मुनेदार इति प्रसिद्धः ॥ ६ ॥
तुष्टेजिनामा नरराजधामा भाव्यं स्वराव्यं समलं चकार ।
ततः सुहस्तस्य चतुःसमुद्रचलावनयापियज्ञोविशालः ॥ ७ ॥
प्रचंडकोर्मजितचंडखं विखंडितारातिगृहीतदेवः ।

भराजत श्रीयशोवरावनामा महाराजपदविखंडः ॥ ८ ॥
मादित्यदीक्षिणवक्षलक्षिकोमोशुकां तां तदयुग्मकांताम् ।
रेचो समावेक्य तदंकाक्षामसावहंशमनुचिंत्य तस्याः ॥ ९ ॥
लोकांतरे वा विदनास्तु सेवा ममेति देवसुरसेवितायाः ।
भस्यास्तदे पदविधानं प्रसादमाधोनुमनां मनीषी ॥ १० ॥
श्रीविक्रमाद्विषमर्षीराराव्यादसाधनामक्षितिसेविने १८९६ ज्ये ॥
श्रीशाहिवाइस्थ शक्ते भराविशेजेंदु १०२९ वर्षे तैसितेकेतिथ्याम्
नादेशवरे श्रीगणे गमावे चक्रे स्वयं मूलशिला निवेशम् ॥ ११ ॥
दारास्तवस्तस्य गुणैरुदारो सदा सदाचारभरा भरायाम् ।
तारा द्वितीयं कुतावतारा वाराशिपारात्तवशः प्रसरा ॥ १२ ॥
कृष्णभिधा भूषणकमख्य मनोरथस्यापि सुपूर्णतयै ।
प्रस्तवमसादितै जवतथियै विनिमीय विमानरूपम् ॥ १३ ॥
श्रीविक्रमादेवरनंदनागवरा १८९० शरन्माधवशुक्रज्ये ।
शरे भूगोः सप्रवत्तयो सा पूर्वः प्रतिष्ठां सविषमकां र्वि ॥ १४ ॥
सुकुत्तसंवादिनदेवभावां भावेन मूर्तिं कृतसंनिधानाम् ।
अस्मिन्नहंवा विजिनप्रतिष्ठां विभाव सामीप्यमपि स्मरारेः ॥ १५ ॥
विभाव्य तस्याः पुरतः दुरारिर्लियं समास्थापयच्च कृष्ण ।
सापुष्टवमस्थाः प्रवयन्मदेशो विभस्वद्वेभरनामधेयः ॥ १६ ॥

Salutation to Śrī Gaṇeśa, salutation to the King of Kings, salutation to Śrī Narmadā!

1. There is on the earth the family of the Holikars, clever in protecting the earth, in beating down the cause of their enemies, and the centre of wealth, bravery, serenity, and other qualities. 2. In this family was born Mallārī (known as Malkār Rao I.), the conqueror of the brave, resembling the tenth incarnation of Hārī (i.e. Kalkī) in his actions, having an umbrella white as the skin of the snake, and shining on his splendid horse which surpassed the wind in speed. This king killed the Turushkas (i.e. Mlechchhas) with his good sword. 3. His son, not less than himself in valour, enjoying infinite pleasures, shone like Viṣṇu lying on the snake. He published to the world his own name, Khaṇḍerāo, as if to show that he did

not differ in person from the tutelary deity of the family. 4. She who was his wife, and observed all duties towards him, reminds us, by her pure actions, of the wives of Atri and Vasishtha, Anasuyā and Arundhatī. 5. She manifested herself on the earth for the protection of men, being equal to her name in person, i.e. resembling the old *Ahalyā* (the wife of Gautama), and incarnate in the form of a queen here in order to put down by force all quarrels and disputes. 6. He who having obtained (for his support) (*ahalyā*) the great devotee of Mahādeva, through her favour was known as the great and generous Subhedār, endowed with wealth, good conduct, bravery, and other qualities. 7. This was Tukoji, who in the splendour of a king was the jewel of his extensive kingdom. Then his son, who was great in his fame, extending the forests on the banks of the four seas, 8. And who had exacted tributes from his enemies whom he had destroyed by his fierce dagger that was set off by his terrible hands, shone as the great king *Yashvantrāo*. 9. Then observing the Narmadā, beautiful between her two banks, and the robe of her current flowing to the south of the town *Māhīśmatī* (Mahāśvara), and thinking of *Ahalyā* as resting on her lap, 10. And with the hope that his services towards her be promulgated through other worlds, the generous king thought of erecting first a ghāt on her bank, and then a palatial tomb. 11. The foundation-stone was laid on the morning of Monday the 12th of the bright half

of Kārtika, on the Śravaṇa Nakṣatra in the year of Vikrama Samvatsara 1856, or the era of Śālivāhana 1721 (i.e. A.D. 1800). 12. Then his wife, generous in all her qualities and bearing excellent conduct on the earth, was incarnate like another Tārā whose fame had spread beyond the seas. 13. She, *Kṛishṇā* by name, erected a palace in form like an air-chariot, and in beauty like the palace of Indra, in order to fulfil the already commenced object of her husband. 14. On Thursday the 7th day in the bright half of Vaiśākha, in the year of Vikrama 1890 (i.e. A.D. 1834), she placed the image (of *Ahalyā*) with Śiva (in the temple). 15. Having here placed with devotion, close to the image of Śiva, *Ahalyā* who had attained a divine position by her conduct, and having thought of placing Śiva close to her image, 16. She, *Kṛishṇā*, placed the *liṅga* of Śiva before the image which appears in the name of *Ahalyāśvara* declaring her final salvation.

There is not much of poetry in these verses, but they serve the purpose for which they were intended. The line of the Holkar family has been traced from its founder, *Malhārāo*, to *Kṛishṇā Bāi*, the adoptive mother of the present Mahārāja, *H. H. Tukoji Rāo Holkar, G.C.S.I.* I have dwelt upon this monumental building at length, as it carries with it a good deal of historical interest, in which the present generation participates to a considerable extent.

A COPPER-PLATE GRANT FROM UDAYPUR.

The plate is a facsimile of a copper-plate grant belonging to the Udaypur Darbār. It was the subject of a dispute a few years ago, as to the possession of the ground granted by it. As *Mokal Rānā* is said to have ruled from Samvat 1454 to 1475, there seems to be some discrepancy in the date of the grant. When Chonda renounced the throne of Chittur in favour of this *Mokal*, it is said he stipulated that in all grants to the vassals of the crown his symbol (the lance of *Salumbra*) should precede the monogram of the *Rānā*: this is shown on the plate, of which the following is a transcript:—

Śrī Rāmji.

(Lance of *Salumbra*).

SAHA—(The *Rānā's* monogram).

Siddha Śrī Mahārājaji Śrī Śrī Mokal Sīg-jī kâ datt pardatt Bamapa Badâ Dhāyalāvâ-la na gām Kavalî, udaka jamî bigâ 2200 ashar hajâr do do-se nîm-sîm su-dî suraj parbi ma Rāmâ arpana* kar di dî, jâ ko tûmpâ patar kar di do. Anîri ko akshachal karsi, jî na Śrī Akliṅganâtha pugî. Samvat 1427, matî Māhâ Sudi 13. Dasgât Pañcholi Maṇa Lāla-ka.

* *Rāmâ arpana* corresponds among the Solar race, as remarked by Major J. W. Watson, to the *Kṛishṇārpana* of the Lunar race; both terms imply an irrevocable grant.

The following version and notes are by Mr. J. F. Goulding, Principal of the Ajmer Government College:—

Śrī Rāmji.

Siddha—Śrī Mahārānji Śrī Śrī Mokāl Singji ka dātha pardathā Brāhmaṇ Badā-Dhalla vā-lā ma gūsh Kevāl udak jamī bigāh 2200 (akrā do hazār do sao) nīm-sīm sudān, Suraj parbi ma Rām arpan kar di di. Jin ko thamha patr kar di do. Inari koe khāchal karsi, je nā Śrī Iklānganāth pugsi. Saṁvat 1427, Mithi Mahā Sudh 13 (thāras). Dastkhat Pancholi Man Lāl-ka.

Translation.

Śrī Rāmji.

Siddhā.—Śrī Mahārānji Śrī Śrī Mokāl Singji has on his own part, by way of an offering to Rāma, given in charity and confirmed to the Brāhmaṇ of Barā Dhāylavālā the village of Kavali, comprising 2200 bigāhs (in words, two thousand two hundred bigāhs), with its foundations and boundaries. It is given during an eclipse of the sun. In witness whereof he has given him this copper-plate. Should any one disturb him in the possession of it, Śrī Eklānganāth will torment him. Dated 13th Mahā Sudh, Saṁvat 1427. Signed,—Man Lāl, Pancholi.

NOTES.

Siddha, literally 'fulfilment,' 'completion,' a word denoting wish or vow, and termed "Maṅgali," i.e. 'triumphant.' It means here "may my wish be satisfied."

The adjective *barā*, 'large,' here qualifies *Dhalla*, which may also be read *Challa*. It is of frequent application in Mherwārā, where the larger of two villages of the same name is always distinguished by the term *barā*, e.g. Barā Lamba, Barā Kansisan, Barā Kherā.

Udak means literally 'water.' The ceremony of Saṅkalpa is here referred to. It consists in the donor taking a small quantity of water in

the palm of his right hand and pouring it into that of the right hand of the donee, repeating the terms and circumstances of the gift. The lands thus bestowed are thenceforth termed *Udak*, and the gift becomes irrevocable.

Nīm-sīm is an idiom, literally 'with its foundation and boundaries;' in its more comprehensive sense, 'in all its entirety.'

Khāchal is literally 'interference.'

Pugsi, literally 'will visit him,' that is, 'torment him.' Eklānganāth is the god worshipped more particularly by the Mahārājas of Udaypur.*

As the name of the donee is not mentioned in the copper-plate, it is just probable that the gift of the village was made to the Brāhmaṇs of Barā Dhāylavālā. The word Brāhmaṇ can be made to signify the plural by placing an *anusvār* over the final *a* in the word Dhāylavālā. Gifts of this kind are frequently made to communities of Brāhmaṇs.

Mr. F. S. Growse, B.C.S., who furnishes a version substantially the same, also remarks that "as both Dailvādī and Korvāṇa are given in the map of Udaypur, they are probably the places intended. There is, however, a difficulty about the date; for Mokāl Siṅha, the first Rājā of Mewār of the younger branch (his elder brother Chonda having ceded to him the throne) did not commence his reign till Saṁvat 1454 (A.D. 1398), and, if the dates given in Tod's narrative† are to be implicitly accepted, can scarcely have been born in Saṁvat 1427 (A.D. 1371),—two years before his father Lakhā ascended the throne. As to the grammatical construction: *we* is occasionally used to the present day by villagers in Mathurā instead of *ho*; and *si* for *ga*, as the sign of the future tense, is of common occurrence in the Hindi *Rāmāyaṇa*. *Apī-rā* I take to be for *us-ko*. Of *akhṣal* and *pugsi*, though the meaning of both is clear from the context, I cannot suggest any derivation."

SANGAMNER INSCRIPTIONS.

TRANSLATED BY E. REHATSEK, M.C.E., Hon. Mem. B. B. & A. S.

Transcripts of the following three inscriptions have been sent to me,‡ and although they are very good, estampages would have been prefer-

able, as I have doubts concerning several words. I give them, however, as they are, without alteration:—

* One of the Mahārājās' titles is 'Dīva of Eklāngaji'. The great temple of Eklānganāth is in a secluded valley among the hills, about eight miles north of Udaypur.—Ed.

† *Annals of Rājasthān*, vol. I. p. 233; Madras ed. p. 237.

‡ The first and second inscriptions are upon a pretty little

domed tomb just east of the town of Sangamner in the Ahmadnagar district. The Khordjah is said by the local Khat to have been the spiritual preceptor of Ālamgir Bādshāh, but the dome is attributed to a later, but undoubted, period.—W. F. S.

I.—On the Gumbaz of Khovājah Muhammad Šādeq.

درگهی صاحب کرامت در مبارک ساعتی
خلق را بهر زیارت حل مشکل حاجتی
مشکل آسان میشوند این خواجگان نقشبند [؟]
خواجه شاهی بلا گردان بفضل و برکتی
آنکه در سیر و سفر چون از بخارا آمدند
مظهر اهل ولایت داشت جاع و حشمتی
صاغت کامل عارف این روضه اندر سال نیک
یکهزار و یکصد و هفتاد بود از هجرتی

The Durgāh of the worker of Kerāmet* is, at a propitious hour, to the people a place for pilgrimage, where their difficulties are solved. Difficulties become easy to these Nakshbendi Khovājahs; the Royal Khovājah is a turner away of calamities† by grace and blessing; when he arrived in his wanderings and travellings from Bokhārā, the manifestor of the possession of the Velāyet‡ enjoyed glory and pomp. Kāmel 'Aārif§ built this mausoleum in the auspicious year 1070 of the exile" [1659-60].

II.—On the durgāh of Khovājah Muhammad Šādeq Nakshbendi.

این درگاه حضرت خواجه محمد صادق فرزندان
حضرت قطب الاقطاب سید محمد بخاری عرف
خواجه بهاء الدین نقشبندی فرزندان حضرت
امام حسن الذکری الهی بحق شیخ دین معروف
کرخی نگهداری از آفتبای چرخ زشرف خواجه
محمد شاه نصرمن الله فتح قریب و بشوالومنین

"The Durgāh of His Excellency Khovājah Muhammad Šādeq, son of His Excellency Kutb-allāktāb¶ Sayyid Muhammad Bokhārī, known as Khovājah Behā-al-din Nakshbendi*, son of His Excellency Emām Hasan Alzīkri Elahy, in reality a Sheikh of the religion known as Karkhy, is a protection from the misfortunes of the times, by the nobility of the Khovājah Muhammad Shāh. Assistance from God, and a speedy victory. And do thou bear good tidings to the true believers."†

III.—On the Friday Mosque.

بفضل الهی مرتب شده
زهجرت هزار و صد و نوزده

"Established by divine favour A. H. 1119" [1707-8].

MISCELLANEA.

SĀGHAR.

In the *Antiquary* (vol. III. p. 116) I find a query by Colonel Yule as to Sāghar, a place visited by Ibn Batūta on his way from Nandurbār in Khāndesh to Khambay.

It is almost certainly Sōnghar (or Songadh?), on the Tapti, in 21° 9' N. latitude; and 73° 35' E. longitude—there or thereabouts. I have not seen the place, but know it by repute as a station on the march from Khāndesh to Gujarāt. On the map it looks rather a roundabout way from Nan-

darbār to Khambay; but the shortest cut across, lying in this instance through very rough and unsettled country, was probably then, as now, the longest way round.

W. F. S.

SOME SONGS OF WESTERN INDIA.

It is not easy to get the words of songs in this part of India. The airs of the Dekhan—"the grave of music," as the Hindustānis call it—are not usually very attractive; and the language is usually

* The miracles worked by saints are named 'Kerāmet,' and appear to hold an intermediate position between the 'Aṣṣ' and the 'Ma'jāt; the former being inferior, and the latter superior to the Kerāmet.

† The speciality of the power of some saints consisted in the favour bestowed on them to remove calamities that befell people. One of the congregation of departed saints of whom Khovājah Behā-al-din Nakshbendi had a vision, said to him:—"They have bestowed on thee the favour (kerāmet) that calamities which have happened should be removed by thy blessing."—*Nafḥat-ul-uns*, p. 247.

‡ The honorific 'they,' used also in Hindustāni, Marāṭhi, Gujarāṭi, &c., I have translated by 'he.'

§ Velāyet, in a special sense, is a metaphor expressing the evanescence of the worshipper in God, and permanence in Him; only he can be in the possession of Velāyet who is a Vāṣel, i.e. one who has attained perfection in the Sulūk, or journey of piety.

¶ This word I prefer to consider as a proper noun; its meaning is 'perfect knower;' both have also a religious sense in reference to a knowledge of the Deity.

¶ Kutb, 'axis,' is a particular degree of sanctity, here exalted to the highest, i.e. 'the axis of axes.'

* The life of Khovājah Behā-al-din Nakshbendi, who died A. H. 791 (1380), and appears never to have left Bokhārā, may be seen in the *Nafḥat-ul-uns*, p. 247-250. Bombay lithogr. ed.

† Koran, lxi. 13.

all but unintelligible, and fragmentary at that. Respect prevents natives from singing in the presence of Europeans, except at a *adck*, where the song is generally a mere repetition of the glories of the principal guest, or an importation from Hindustân or Haidarâbâd.

It is probable that the *kathas* or semidramatic recitations, and *sufaks* or plays, would afford a field for any inquirer who had health and patience to endure their "linked sweetness long drawn out" at impossible hours, and subject to the conditions of crowd and heat which are inevitable; but as yet no one has been found to try it. One class of compositions, however, are an exception in this respect,—I mean the boat-songs of the coast, which perhaps owe some of their undoubted charm to their surroundings of fresh air and beautiful scenery, and to the pleasant leisure which the passenger enjoys, sitting

"Above the oars

The while on even keel, between low shores,

Our long ship breasts the Thames' flood or the Seine"—

that is, *untatis mastandis*, the tide-wave that sweeps the palm-fringed shores and castellated islands of the Kûlûbâ coast, or the moonlit streams of the beautiful Kondulika and Ulûs.*

The following fragments were mostly picked up upon such expeditions; and I can only regret that my want of musical science prevents me from giving the tunes, and hope that some more scientific traveller may be induced to contribute to our knowledge of the subject.

The first is a song much in favour with the coast Kôlis; the hero, "Bhoki Baka," is a sportive Koli, who has pushed a lady into his house and shut the door. Her plaintive entreaty for release forms the refrain, and is given with great expression, and a suppressed grin of appreciation.

She speaks:

Are, Bhoki Bâbâ, malâ kashâlâ dharalâ?

Bhoki Bâbâ, are, malâ sojûn de!

He answers:

Tulâ âhe sonchâ wa rupaichâ dâpâ.

She repeats:

Bhoki Bâbâ, are malâ sojûn de!

She speaks, seeing her husband approach:

Are, Bhoki Bâbâ, pahâ te ale navarâ!

Bhoki Bâbâ, are malâ sojûn de!

The husband speaks:

Bhoki Bâbâ, kotheñ âhe majhi porî?

The lady interrupts Bhoki's answer with

Bhoki Bâbâ, are malâ sojûn de!

and so on for several stanzas, or rather distichs, in the same style. I learnt this and the next from

the gig's crew of the Political Agent at Jinjira. The following is the translation:—

"Oh! Bhoki Bâbâ, why did you catch me so?

Oh! Bhoki Bâbâ, pray let me go!"

"You have an arm of silver and gold" (this is a compliment, alluding to her bracelets).

"Oh! Bhoki Bâbâ, pray let me go!

"Bhoki Bâbâ, see, there is my husband coming (lit. that my husband has come)! Oh, Bhoki Bâbâ!" &c.

"Bhoki Bâbâ, where is my little girl?" (a curious use of *porî*, which usually means one's daughter).

"Oh! Bhoki Bâbâ!" &c.

Another similar song is a dialogue between a Koli woman who has gone into a garden to steal flowers to deck herself with, and the gardener, who has discovered her. He shuts the gate to prevent her escape, and answers all her petitions for release with the refrain—

"Tulâ hai re phulichâ galyâ," i.e. "You have got a necklace of flowers"—evidence of her theft.

The following war-song is a great favourite with the Musalmân boatmen; it has some resemblance in language, and much in vigour and power, to the Marseillaise, and was to be heard in every Musalmân boat during the last Bombay riots, the singers getting much excited:—

"Husain ne bolâ, Karbala men âkar,

Âj bakhat ayâ lajâi kâ.

Kasimî! bolâ, bahe khijmatî karekar,

Âj bakhat ayâ lajâi kâ.

Ija ka din ayâ, khijmatî karekar,

Âj bakhat ayâ lajâi kâ," &c.

Here is a more harmless fragment from the Mahâd river:—

"Jhor-jhorî kuttre, Mogalya,

Sassa pulâlâ, dongaryâ;

Jevhân sasane kuttr'yañla pahila,

Jevhâñcheñ tevhan, lapûñhi basalâ."

"Two Moghal dogs in a leash were they,

And a mountain hare that ran away;

When the hare those dogs espied,

At once he squatted down to hide."

And the next, "Musalmâni" from Thâna, is almost a nursery rhyme, and not a bad one either:—

Mûrghâ murgî shâdî kyâ,

Baidâ dyâ solâ,

Jaldî bachhâ paidâ huâ,

Kakurâ! kakurâ! kukurû! bolâ.

"Cock and hen a wedding made,

Sixteen eggs (the lady) laid,

Out came a little chick speedily,

'Cock-a-doodle-doo!' quoth he."

* "Ulûs"—'rejoicing,' with an idea of motion; "Nadi ulûs na châlâ" is a line of a Thûkur song in praise of the monsoon.

The author of *Pāṇḍurang Hari* puts in the mouth of an ass-driver between Puṇā and Nagar several songs which I find still remembered in the latter city. The best is a nursery rhyme:—

Ḍing! porī, ḍing! kapālācheṇ bing;
Bing gelā phūṭhūn, porī gelī āṭhūn.

Which may be translated—

"Bye, bye, my little lass
(Looked at herself in) a looking-glass;*
Smash in pieces went the glass,
And up and away went my little lass."

The boatmen have choruses, to which they tack on rude verses improvised for the occasion. The following is very popular on the Kulābhā coast:—

1. Bharatī āṭī; peṭ bharitānā
Khandāri ḍongar tikaḍe jā.
2. Tāmbada phūṭalā, peṭ bharitānā
Khandāri ḍongar tikaḍe jā.
3. Diwas ughawālā; peṭ bharitānā
Khandāri ḍongar tikaḍe jā.
4. Sāheb lok basale; peṭ bharitānā
Khandāri ḍongar tikaḍe jā.

1. "The flood has come; filling our bellies (i.e. earning our bread) go to the hill of Khandāri" (Kennerly Island, south of Bombay, a well-known mark).

2. "The day has broken; † earning our bread," &c.

3. "The sun has risen; earning our bread," &c.

4. "The sāhebs have taken their seats (in the boat); earning our bread," &c.

The strain on the imagination of the improvisatore at the stroke car is not severe. Sometimes the chorus is nonsense, e.g. a "Musalmān" one "Lāhemāḍla wa mewa phula" three times repeated. "Mewa phula," fruit and flowers; but the rest is gibberish, and the chorus is fitted, like the last, to any words that occur.

Critical readers are warned that I am not responsible for boatmen's grammar.

W. F. SINCLAIR.

Queries.

CHĀKAN, BELGĀM, AND CHAKABŪ.

1. In A.D. 1436, Malik-ut-Tijār, having undertaken the conduct of the war, marched at the head of a choice body of troops, the flower of the Dekhan army. This officer began on a systematic plan of conquering and regulating the country to be subdued. He established his head-quarters at Chākan, and raised a fort near the city of Junar."

"Chākan is a small fort eighteen miles north from Puṇā. It is nearly square, with towers at

the angles and centres of the faces; it has a good ditch about thirty feet wide and fifteen deep, but wet on the north side only; the walls are high, the parapet and rampart narrow, and the towers confined. There is but one entrance into the body of the place through five or six gateways; and there is a mud outwork, which also has a ditch. I mention it particularly on account of its reputed antiquity; for, although it probably is the fort built by Malik-ut-Tijār, according to concurring Hindū legends it was constructed by an Abyssinian Poligār A.D. 1295. As to how he got there, they do not pretend to account."

Fort Chākan, thirty-five miles south from Junar, was built by Khalaf Hasan of Basri (Bassora?), styled Malik-ut-Tijār. Further information is required regarding the family history of the two Marāṭhā Rājās by whom he was betrayed; the wily Poligār Sirkhō of Panāla, and his abused friend of Fort Siṅhgaḍ or Kandwānā (Kelneh in Scott's translation).§

2. What is known of Vikrama Rāya of Belgām—the Birkana Rāy of Muhammadan writers—conquered by Muhammad Shāh Bahmani in 1472, and of his ancestors?

3. "However, it was decreed that for a certain time that kingdom should remain in the family of the Pāṇḍavas; for this reason, when Abhiman, the son of Arjuna, was killed in the battle of Chakabū, his wife happened to be pregnant; accordingly, after nine months, she gave birth to a fortunate son: so their dark-house was lighted up."||

In which of the *Parāṭhas* is the fullest account of the battle of Chakabū given?

R. R. W. ELLIS.

Starcross, near Exeter, 14th September 1875.

CHĀKAN.

Chākan—probably 'Chār kan,'—kan being among Marāṭhās a division between four posts, by which they reckon the size of all buildings, and is the name of the village,—probably older than the fort. The tradition of the Abyssinian chief is now extinct, and there is no reason whatever for connecting it with Chakabū. Grant Duff's account of the modern fort is incorrect in every particular except as to size. It was captured by Śivaji early in his career. For the subsequent siege by and capitulation to Shaista Khān Amir ul' Umra vide Grant Duff, vol. I. Shaista Khān repaired the fort, according to inscriptions found there dated 19th Zulhej A. H. 1071. It was finally dismantled in 1838—vide *Ind. Ant.* vol. II, p. 43.

W. F. S.

* *Kapālācheṇ bing* is the small round hand-glass which barbers carry and give to the patient to hold while they are operating on his "kapāl" (head).

† Lit. "It has broken red"—an idiomatic expression for

the red appearance of the sky at earliest "peep o' day."

‡ Grant Duff's *History of the Marāṭhās*, vol. I, p. 61.

§ Firishtah, Persian text, vol. I, p. 644.

|| *Arush-i-Mukhlis*, translated by Major H. Court, 1871.

THE LEGENDARY ACCOUNT OF OLD NEWĀSA.

BY ŚRĪ KRISHNA ŚĀSTRĪ TALEKAR, DEPUTY EDUCATIONAL INSPECTOR, AHMADNAGAR.

NEWĀSA is a tālukā town in the district of Ahmadnagar. It has, like many other places, its own history or legend, which I hope will be of some interest to the readers of the *Indian Antiquary*.

The legend is given in the *Mahālaya Māhātmya* (or 'the greatness of Māhālaya'), which is a part of the *Skanda Purāṇa*. The *Māhātmya* is written in both Sanskrit and Prākṛit. It has not been published, nor is it known except in Newāsa. There are few copies of it even there, and consequently their owners do not trust them to others. I obtained, with difficulty, a copy for perusal, for which I was indebted to a friend. It gives the geographical position of Newāsa, and enlarges on the sanctity and legendary history both of the place itself, and of the *Ārthas* named as connected with it. The legend respecting Newāsa is as follows:—

Formerly there was a demon by name Tārakāsura, who having pleased Brahmā and got entrance into heaven through his favour, became so proud that he began to harass the gods, and at last expelled them from heaven. The gods then met together and went to Brahmā for protection, who mentally invoked Viṣṇu for assistance. Viṣṇu forthwith appeared, and having heard the cause of his invocation said to him that Kārtika Svāmī (the commander-in-chief of the celestial armies) was to kill the demon, and that he was yet to be born in the womb of Pārvatī from the loins of Śankar. Brahmā then asked for a place for all the gods to live in till the birth of Kārtika Svāmī should take place, where they would suffer no annoyance from the demon. Viṣṇu then pointed out Newāsa for them, which he described thus:—

विंध्यस्य दक्षिणे भागे गोदाया दक्षिणे तटे ।
पंचकोशात्मकं क्षेत्रं वरा यत्र नदी शुभा ।
तस्याथ पूर्वभागे हि देव्यवी शक्तिरुत्ता ।

"In the country south of the Vindhya mountains, and on the south bank of the Godāvari, there is a holy place of the extent of five kos, where there is the meritorious Varā; and to the east of the river there is a Vaishnavi

Śakti* (popularly called Mohinīrāja) of extraordinary power."

The gods then immediately resorted to this place. The position given above is exactly that of the present Newāsa.

The names of Newāsa used in the *Mahālaya Māhātmya* are Mahālaya and Nidhiwāsa, and the names of the river, Pravara, Pāpharā, and Varā. The origin of all these names is given in the *Māhātmya* by Sanatkumāra to Vyāsa.

Vyāsa asks—

महालयं कथं क्षेत्रं निधिवसः कथं हि तत् ।
प्रवेति कथं नाम तथा पापहरेति च ।
वरा च नाम्ना रामवत्कथं सा मुनिसत्तम ।

"O greatest of the sages, how did this holy place come to be called Mahālaya, and also Nidhiwāsa? What is the origin of the name Pravara, and of the name Pāpharā? Why is the river called Varā? Sanatkumāra answers:—

महतमालयं यस्मात्स्थानमेतद्विष्णुनि ।
महालयमिदं हि जामिनी विवृता विदुः ।
यस्य देवस्य यद्वस्तु करिष्ये तद्विहाययत् ।
निधयो निधितास्तत्र भवन्ते महामुने ।
यस्मात्त्र चलिता स्थानान्निधयो देवगृहिताः ।
निधिवसस्ततो लोके स्वर्गतिमाप शुभा भुवि ।
आप ऊतुः । माधुर्यसंयुक्ताः शुद्धा लोकत्रयप्रभा ।
सर्वेषामुपजीव्या ये भविष्यामस्तथा कुरु ।

"As this place was a dwelling-place of the great (the gods), wise men called it Mahālaya (*mahā*, great, and *ālaya*, a dwelling-place)." When the gods betook themselves to this place, as advised by Viṣṇu, "every one of them brought with him whatever he considered most valuable. O great sage, Kabir (the treasurer of the gods) lodged here his (nine) treasures, which were worshipped by the gods and were never removed. Hence the place got the good name of Nidhiwāsa among the people of earth (*nidhi*, treasures, and *wāsa*, a depository). The waters (of the Pravara) spoke (to the presiding deity): 'O Lord of the three worlds, make us such that we shall become possessed of sweet taste, pure, and sustaining all in life.'

* Vaishnavi Śakti—the energy of Viṣṇu personified as a goddess.

The boon asked for by the waters was granted them by the deity, and hence the names *Pravarā*, or the river of very sweet water; *Pāpharā*, the river washing away sins; and *Varā*, the river of healthy water."

This story, though mythological, serves well to explain the origin of the names of *Newāsa*, and those of the river *Pravarā*. It need not now be told that *Newāsa* is a corruption of *Nidhiwāsa*, the ancient name of the place. It was first changed to *Niwāsa*, in which form it occurs in *Dnyāneśvara*, and then to *Newāsa*. *Niwāsa* is also a Sanskrit word meaning 'a place of residence.' There is a phrase in Marāṭhī गोदा स्नान आणि पक्क पान, "We should use waters of the *Godā* for bathing, and those of the *Pravarā* for drinking," in common use among the higher classes of Hindus residing on the banks of the *Godāvari* and the *Pravarā*.

The *Mahālaya Māhātmya* tells us that the *Vaishnavi Śakti* above alluded to was the presiding deity at *Newāsa* when the gods came there for protection. This *Śakti* is still the tutelary deity of the town. There is a beautiful temple of this deity at *Newāsa*. It is of modern date, but its sculpture is excellent. This *Śakti*, the *Māhātmya* states, is the form which *Vishṇu* assumed to punish *Rāhu* (a demon) who, at the time of distributing nectar produced by the *Surās* and *Asurās* from the churning of the ocean, entered in disguise among the gods to drink it, though it was intended for the gods only.

Dnyāneśvara makes mention of *Newāsa*, and states that he composed his *Dnyāneśvari* there. He has given a description of it, which is similar to that given in the *Mahālaya Māhātmya*. It is this (*Dnyāneśvari*, ch. xviii.) :—

ऐसे युगो परि कळी । आणि महाराष्ट्रमंडळी ।
श्रीगोदावरीजवळी । निवास स्थान ॥
ते विभुवनैकपात्रे । अनादि पंचकोश क्षेत्र ।
जेथ जगाचें जीवन सृष्ट । श्रीमहालाय वस्ते ॥
जेथ यदुवंशविलास । तो सकलकला निवास ।
न्यायानें पोषी क्षितीश । श्रीरामचंद्र ॥
जेथ महेशान्वयसंभूत । श्रीनिशुनिनाथसुत ।
केलें ज्ञानदेवें गीते । दिशकारलेणें ॥

"In the *Kali Yuga* there is a place (by name) *Niwāsa*, in the *Marāṭhā* country, near the *Godāvari*, which extends five *kos*, and is the

only holy place in the three worlds, from time immemorial, in which there lives the deity *Śri Mahālayā* (*Mohinirāja*), the preserver of lives in the universe, and in which there is a ruler of the earth (by name) *Rāmachandra*, who is an ornament to the *Yādava* race, the abode of all arts, and the supporter of justice. There the *Gītā* was dressed in *Marāṭhī* by *Dnyānadeva*, a descendant of the family of *Mahēśa*, and the son* of *Nivritti Nāth*."

At the distance of about a quarter of a mile from *Newāsa* towards the west there is a stone pillar, apparently part of a temple not now in existence, bearing a Sanskrit inscription. The pillar is called *Dnyānobācha khamb*, 'Dnyānobā's pillar.' When I first heard of the pillar and of its being inscribed, I was impatient to see the inscription, as I was in hopes that I might find something in it regarding *Dnyānobā*, the pillar being called after his name. But, to my disappointment, when I did visit it I found nothing in it regarding either *Dnyānobā* or *Newāsa*. The pillar is buried in the ground, with a pretty good flat-roofed building over it measuring about thirty-three feet by twenty-six. The pillar is called *Dnyānobā's* only because it is supposed to have been leaned against by him while composing his commentary on the *Gītā*. But great respect is paid to it in consequence of this, and a fair is held every year in honour of the pillar, on the 11th day of the dark fortnight of *Phālgun*. The height of the pillar above the ground is about four and six inches, and its circumference about four feet. The middle part of the pillar is square, while it is round above and below. The front side of the square bears the inscription, which consists of seven lines, and contains two Sanskrit verses in *Anushtup* metre. It is as follows :—

- [1] भोजनः [कर] वैरिभ्रातृ । पिता
- [2] महेन यत्नं [वत्] पृष्टं जगद्गुरोः ।
- [3] अस्मिन् वसति तैलाय य-
- [4] नि मासे सदा हि तत् । [रूपका]
- [5] [ना] यदुसंख्या देया आचंद्रस्-
- [6] यैकं । [यः स्तो] करोति दुष्टः [सः] तस्य
- [7] पूर्वं जलं तपः । मंगले महाश्रीः ।

Translation.

"Om, salutation to *Karavireśvara* ! As (my) grandfather has formerly granted a sum of six

* *Nivritti Nāth* was the elder brother of *Dnyāneśvara*, and also his guru. He therefore calls himself his son.

(rupees) to Jagatguru (Śiva), to be continued *per mensem*, for a continual supply of wick and oil (for a light in his temple), so that that sum of six rupees should be given as long as the sun and the moon exist, he who appropriates it to his use is wicked: his ancestors will go to hell. May the great deity (Mohinirāja) do good!"

The letters of the inscription have in several places suffered from the effects of time, which have rendered them illegible or uncertain. They have been supplied as the general contents of the inscription required, and have been distinguished from the rest by brackets. In the first line [ॐ] is supplied from the *Mahātmya* *Māhātmya*, which gives Karavīreśvara as a name of Śiva, from Karavīr, a head-attendant of Śiva who propitiated him and induced him to take the name as a token of his favour towards him (Karavīr).

The inscription bears no date, nor does it name the grantor, but the date can approximately be fixed from the character of the letters inscribed. The character is similar to that found in inscriptions dated six hundred years back, so that the inscription cannot be older than about that time. As to the name of the grantor, or rather the renewer of the grant, there are no means of ascertaining it. But it appears that some rich man in Newāsa probably renewed the grant of his grandfather, who, being a devotee of Karavīreśvara, to whom a salutation is offered at the beginning of the inscription, furnished the temple with a lamp continually burning. Newāsa, as the *ośi* अयं यज्ञं चित्तं, &c., quoted above from the *Dayānēśvarī*, shows, was the capital of Rāja Rāmachandra, and it must have then contained many rich men, though there are none at present. The Rāja Rāmachandra, the same *ośi* proves, was contemporary with

Dnyānēśvara (who completed his *Dayānēśvarī* at Newāsa in Śaka 1212, or 1290 A.D., and died at Ālandī, near Puṇā, in Śaka 1218 or 1296 A.D.)—that is, he was ruling at Newāsa about six hundred years back, or about the time the grant was inscribed; but he cannot be supposed to have made the grant. If he had given anything for the maintenance of the lamp, it would have been a village or land, and not such a small sum as six rupees.

The above *ośi* quoted from the *Dayānēśvarī* will be found useful. They contribute to the history of the Yadava or Gaṇḍī Rājas by giving the name, the capital, and the date of one of them.

Note.

The learned Śāstri assumes the identity of the Yadavas of Devgaḍh and the surrounding region with the Gaṇḍī Rājas,—a subject on which we are gradually getting a little light, especially from the earlier sargas of the *Dandabhāṇḍya* (*vide ante*, pp. 71 ff.), in which the ruler of Vāmanasthali is stigmatized as an Ahir or herdsmen. But in the 4th sarga this chief's ambassador seems to speak of his master as a Yadava; and in fact it is almost certain that he was one of the Chūḍāsamā Rās of Junāgaḍh, whom Major Watson (vol. II. p. 316) considers to have sprung from Chūḍā Chand Yadava. It is to be hoped that the Śāstri will contribute the result of his researches towards the elucidation of the great historical puzzle of the Gaṇḍī rāj.

The references to Dnyānēśvara are also of interest. Is it not possible to recover the *original* text* of this first and greatest of Marāṭhī poets? It would be more valuable for Marāṭhī than Chaucer is for the history of the development of the English language. Who will be patriotic enough to attempt in good earnest to discover at least the *oldest* text now in existence?

SACRED FOOTPRINTS IN JAVA.

BY DR. A. B. COHEN STUART.

Translated from the Dutch by the Rev. D. Macmillan, M.A.

The first of the accompanying sketches has been borrowed from the photograph taken by Heer J. van Kinsbergen for the Government of Netherlands India, and published under the superintendence of the Batavian Society of Arts and Sciences in the *Oudheden van Java* (No.

10), and represents, according to the catalogue of that valuable collection, "an inscribed stone with two footprints and spiders at the river Charenten,† at Champea, Buitenzorg."

The extraordinary distinctness with which the inscription on this stone has been preserved

*The Honourable Rao Sīlāb Vīshvanāth Nāṭhyas Maṇḍlik informs me that his MS. of the *Dayānēśvarī* says it was revised, that is, modernized, in Śaka 1576, or A.D. 1654.—Ed.

† Elsewhere Chiroenten, which flows northwards from Mount Salak and falls into the Chidani near Champea.

and rendered in the photograph, throws a remarkable light on other memorials of the same nature, and also furnishes, if I mistake not, a contribution of some importance to the history of writing in Java.

When but recently, in the introduction to the *Kawi Oorkonden*, blz. vi., I mentioned, with some reserve, the close relation between the forms of writing in these records and that of some of the oldest known inscriptions of ancient India, I had particularly in view certain copper-plates, published in the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* (N. S. vol. I. pp. 247 ff.) by Prof. Dowson, belonging to the Chālukya dynasty of Kaira and dated in the year Ś. 394 (A.D. 472-473). The striking and, in many respects, even perfect resemblance between the characters of that inscription and our Kawi—a resemblance first pointed out by our Sinologue Dr. G. Schlegel—induced me at the time to make a note of the alphabet. Though no other Indian form of writing really appeared on the whole so nearly related to the Kawi, yet I did not venture to attach much weight to it, inasmuch as some characters differed decidedly, and moreover I was a stranger to a number of Indian forms of writing, among which perhaps the nearest approach to the Kawi might occur.

So far as the Peninsula is concerned, my doubts are to a certain extent met by Dr. A. C. Burnell's recently published *Elements of South Indian Palaeography from the Fourth to the Seventeenth Century A.D.*, containing a series of alphabets and specimens of writing arranged according to chronological order from the oldest* in the fourth century A.D.—the Vengi inscription, from the north-east of the peninsula, from a Chera inscription of A.D. 466,† from the south-east; West Chālukya, A.D. 608-9, from the north-west corner; and East Chālukya, A.D. 680, from the north-east,—quite or nearly corresponding to the first-mentioned Chālukya inscription, and the later ones deviate from it further and further, as well as from the Kawi writing.

This last circumstance was to be expected, since we know that the character of our Kawi records ascends at least to the middle of the eighth century, and thus can scarcely show

deviations which in the original country first began to appear at a later date.

Granting, however, that the character brought over from India doubtless also in Java and elsewhere in the Archipelago developed in numberless secondary branches independent of the parent stem, we have no certainty that these branches all sprang from one original form of that stock; and we must at least allow it as probable that during some ages of the more active intercourse with India, writing in Java continued to share in the influences of time and locality and other circumstances that influenced it in India. Consequently we find here and there in Java forms of writing more closely allied to one than another of the Indian alphabets; yet it does not by any means follow from this that in the one form of writing we have the true key to the origin of the other.

Still I think I may call it a notable discovery that, on inscribed stones in West Java—otherwise less rich in memorials of Hindu civilization than other parts of the island—the Vengi or Chera character, even in the peculiarities that most markedly distinguish it from the Kawi, is so clearly rendered as in the case of the Charoenten stone. By a comparison of that inscription with Burnell's first plate and the alphabet from the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, I succeeded without difficulty in reading the greater part of it, though it contained characters that could not easily be explained by the Kawi. Inasmuch, however, as it appeared to be Sanskrit, of which my knowledge is limited, I applied to Prof. Kern, and with his aid was enabled to obtain a full explanation of the inscription with the exception of a couple of letters.

It consists of four lines forming together a pure Sanskrit *Shloka* :—

1. Vikrāntasyāvanipateh.
2. śrīmatah pūrṇavarmanah.
3. ...ma-nagarendrasya.
4. Viśṇor-iva pada-dvayam.

The subject of the sentence is *pada-dvayam*, i.e. 'pair of feet' or 'two footsteps': all the rest of the words with the exception of the adverb *iva*, 'like,' immediately preceding it, are genitives of the nouns *vikrānta*, 'striding,' 'stepping,' also 'mighty' (here perhaps to be

* Not therefore, however, the most ancient known remains of Indian writing, which in the inscriptions of Aśoka

ascend to about B.C. 250.

† See the Merkara plates, *Ind. Ant.* vol. I. p. 363.—Ed.

STONE IN THE RIVER CHARVENTEN, IN BUITENZORG, JAVA.



STONE AT JAMBU, BUITENZORG, JAVA.



understood in a double sense, and specially in allusion to Vishnu's *trisekrama*—the 'three strides' with which he is supposed to have overstepped the world), *amipati*, 'lord of the soil, prince'; *Sriman*, 'illustrious'; *Pûṇṇavarmma*, a personal name; . . . *ma-nagarendra*, 'prince of the city or kingdom of . . . *ma*;' and *Vishnu*, the god. And the whole may be translated thus:—

"The two footsteps of the striding (or mighty?) Prince, the illustrious Pûṇṇavarmma, lord of . . . *ma-nagara*, are like (those) of Vishnu." With respect to the personal name, Prof. Kern points out that in St. Julien's *Mémoires sur les contrées occidentales, par Hiouen Tsiang*, t. I. p. 463, a Buddhist king of Magadha is mentioned, of the same name, as a protector and cultivator of the Bo-tree, which the heretics (non-Buddhists) had wished to extirpate. Whether the same person is here intended, or perhaps another in Java called after him, is difficult to determine, so long as the name of the place is unknown. "From the comparison with Vishnu," remarks Prof. Kern, "the Brahmanical character of the inscription does not follow, at least with certainty: the whole Hindu Pantheon is fully acknowledged by the Buddhists, and even enlarged and enriched particularly with evil spirits and devils."

As to the name, it is certain that it consisted of three syllables of which the last is *ma*; the middle syllable appears to be *na* or *ni*—probably the latter, at least if *ma* is to be considered as short, seeing the metre requires a long syllable. The first, which as to metre may be either long or short, we are inclined conjecturally to read as *na* or *ni*,—though it appears to differ rather widely from both in this character, we cannot suggest a better.

The last character deserves special notice, viz. *ma*, which is thus equivalent to *ma*, and if necessary it may be so understood by the stroke running down on the right side of the letter as standing in place of the usual form of the *virama* or *pata* in Kawi: but the unusual form and position of the letter readily suggest the peculiarity mentioned by Burnell (page 15):—"Final *ma* is represented by a small *ma*—less than the other letters—which

is peculiar to the Vengi character." So, though without the crooked line, it is nearly represented in his first plate, 4th century A.D., expressing the syllable *lam*; in the following, A.D. 608, its place is supplied by a small circle between other letters but near the top of the line; while later (A.D. 689) it is written above the preceding letter and passes into the well-known form of *anuvāra* or *bindu*, though at first it is *interchanged* with the old form.

If the two star-like figures before the footprints represent spiders, as the catalogue states—and they have really something of that appearance—it may be imputed, as Prof. Kern thinks, to the Jaina doctrine, which prescribes at every step to be careful not to trample upon any living creature.

Above the figure are some strokes, as of writing, that still wait explication.

Thus, without being able accurately to determine the time whence this memorial dates, we may regard it with some grounds of certainty as one of the oldest indications of Hinduism hitherto known in Java; a trace that derives a higher interest from its surroundings,—on a living almost shapeless mass of rock in the middle of a stream, scarcely above the surface of the water, where it has lain for at least ten centuries unprotected and undisturbed, without apparently having sustained any injury to the sharpness of the lines with which it is carved.

Under Nos. 11 and 12 of the catalogue follow two stones of the same sort,—the first at Jambou inscribed with two footprints* and already described by Rigg and Frederick in the *Tijdschrift voor Ind. Taal-, Land- en Volkenkunde*, III. 183 ff. It has two lines of writing, each 5 feet 2 inches long, of the same sort, and apparently not less distinct and well preserved than that on No. 10, but in the photographic copy too much foreshortened to be equally easily read. No. 12 is a stone at Kébon Kopi (Coffee-garden) on the way from Champea to Pasaran Mocwara, and shows the impresses of two elephant's-feet with a line of inscription between them, apparently of the same kind, but not so well preserved or copied, and not deciphered as yet.

Professor Kern has been able in a great

* These impressions are much feebler than those of No. 10: in the photograph there is little more distinguishable than the toes near the top of the triangular stone,

beyond which is a deep gap between the two, which, according to Rigg, were originally united, but probably torn asunder by fire.

measure to make out the Jambue inscription. Each of the two lines shows clearly two halves, each answering to a line of *Sragdhara* measure consisting of three parts each of seven syllables, thus:—

— — — — — | — — — — — | — — — — —

This being once established, it is necessary to find words for the doubtful places which will suit *first* the measure; *second*, as far as practicable, the sense; and *third*, to correspond with the traces of writing. The last two conditions, however, are too loose, and allow too much room for choice, to be a sufficient guarantee against a wrong reading. Accordingly in the following attempt at a transcription the more doubtful letters are printed in italics, while the rest are sufficiently certain:—

1. Śrīmān nāmā-krēta-dāyo narapatir-asamo yaś purā . . aramāyā,

2. nāmā Śrī-Pūrṇa-varmā paṭar-ari-mukharābhēdya (or suṣarā?) vikhyāta-varmā,

3. tasyēdam pāda-vimba-dvaya-ari-nagaroṣādanē nityadaśakam,

4. bhaktānā(ng) yat tridhātum sugati-sukha-karanj Jyēsthābhē vāri mūlē,

Of which the meaning amounts to nearly this:—

"The illustrious, skilled in many great deeds,

matchless prince who aforesaid (*ruled in*) ... *aramā* with the name of H. H. Pūrṇa-varmā, the brave whose weapons were renowned, invulnerable to hostile assailants (or to the enemy's best darts?): Of him is this pair of footprints at all times capable to destroy hostile cities. Which footprints supplied blessing and enjoyment to those who belong to the division of the three constellations Jyēsthā, Vāri (or first Aśādhā), and Mūla."

In illustration of this last clause, which admittedly rests on a mere conjecture,* Prof. Kern remarks that space is divided into nine spokes or divisions, corresponding to our eight cardinal points and the zenith, each swayed by three constellations, of which the three mentioned represent the west. The meaning therefore should be that the representation of the feet—for *pāda vimba* leaves it doubtful whether the prints be intended literally—is to be contemplated as a sanctuary of blissful influence for the inhabitants of the west (of Java). However this may be, so much at least is certain, that here reference is also meant to a footprint of the same person who is mentioned on the stone of Charoenten.

Leiden, 26th May 1875.

WORDS AND PLACES IN AND ABOUT BOMBAY.

BY DR. J. GERSON DA CUNHA.

(Continued from vol. III. p. 295.)

Kālādevī—the name of a main road in Bombay connecting the Esplanade with Pāyadhūnī, about the middle of which is a Hindu shrine of the same name,—derives its origin from Kālī or Kālikā, an incarnation of Bhagavati or Durgā, and a heroine, from the triumph she achieved over the Asura Raktavija.

The *Kālikā Māhātmya* states that the goddess, on destroying this powerful demon, was so overjoyed that, unable to restrain her feelings, she commenced to dance, and the dancing became at last so violent that the earth quaked to its very poles. The *Adhyātma Rāmāyaṇa* gives a description of another *avatār* of Kālī. It is there said that when Rāma was returning home with his wife Sītā after the defeat of Rāvaṇa, he

was all the way talking to her about his great exploits, which Sītā finding rather vain-glorious remarked that he had only vanquished a Rāvaṇa of ten heads, or Daśānana, but she doubted very much whether he could kill one with a thousand. This remark instigated Rāma to challenge this Rāvaṇa of a thousand heads, whom, however, he was unable to destroy; and Sītā, to avoid disgrace to her husband, intervened, assumed the form of Kālī, and killed him.

The legend goes on to state that this feat took place in a city named Mahimāpurī, where the demon resided. This Mahimāpurī is supposed to correspond to modern Mahim, and the narrative is possibly an allusion to some

* For the last syllable (and I am obliged to read *pā*) and in the place where the syllables *bhē* *vā* must stand I can-

not possibly find a place for them, though, according to the metre, two long syllables must be supposed there.

battle fought between Râma and a king of ancient Mahim. The victory is said to have been then commemorated by raising a temple on the spot to the goddess Kâli, which was transferred from the island of Mahimâpurî to that of Mambâdevî, where it is to be seen in our days. The current tradition is that the temple was transferred about five hundred years ago by a Koli named Kâlbâ or Kâlsâ, and hence the name Kâlbâdevî; but no reliance can be placed on this story.

Any one passing along the Kâlbâdevî road may see the image of Kâli just in front of the door of a small square room, with a circular dome, seated on a quadrilateral cornice bearing four images of Mahâdeva, one at each angle, and surmounted by a flag. It is represented as a black female figure with red paint on the face, silvery white eyes, and a gaudy scarlet *sâdî* round the waist, while the trunk is left nude. The Kolis never pass it without saluting it with both hands.

Kâli is supposed to have been originally a goddess of the non-Âryan races, incorporated into the Hindu pantheon, along with other aboriginal deities, as a Brahmanical expedient to induce the natives of the country to join their creed, just as the first Jesuit missionaries, such as De' Nobili and others, in proselytizing the Brâhmanas, are said to have done in later times. Sir W. Jones considers Kâli as analogous to the Proserpine of the Greeks.

The present temple was built not very many years ago, after pulling down the old one, which stood about the same place, in order to widen the Kâlbâdevî road. It is also said that the modern building was erected at the expense of the Government. It is at present under the management of the Pâlsis, the aboriginal settlers in Bombay.

Besides the Hindu temple just mentioned, there are several others in Bombay, the greater number being dedicated to a saint of the aborigines, imported into the Brahmanical *Flas Sanctorum*—Mâruti or Hanuman, the monkey-god, and the son of Maruta and Ajânî. The Hindus worship Mâruti because he is supposed to possess the power to bestow sound health on his votaries and preserve them from epidemics. The Catholic martyrology has also a saint described as *advocatus contra pestes coram Deo*, who is invoked when any infectious disease prevails.

The peculiarity about the worship of Hanuman is that his altar is made solely for him, and that it allows no niche or corner for any other *devata*; while other *devas* do not disdain the company of even the lowest of their fraternity. The special day when Mâruti is worshipped is Saturday, when vermilion and oil are poured on him. In the *Râmâyana* it is said that when Mâruti was born he saw the rising sun, and thinking it to be a ripe fruit flew up to the sky and seized the sun's chariot, whereupon Indra, fearing that Mâruti would swallow the sun, smote him, and he came to the ground. As a reward for his bravery, and at the recommendation of his father Vâyuvor Maruta, who corresponds to the Æolus of the Romans, Brahma made him *chiranjîva*, or immortal. In the war of Râma with Râvâna he is said to have assisted the former, at the head of a regiment of monkeys. It is likewise said that this simian general first met Râma on the Rishimukha mountain, near the lake Pampâ, in the south of the Dekhan, a place not identified.

Mâruti has a number of patronymics describing several of the episodes of his life,—as Hanuman, which is derived from *hanu*, 'the chin,' in reference to the fall he had from heaven, a result of the blow received from Indra's thunderbolt on his chin.

The principal temples of Śiva in Bombay are:—one close to the old Sailors' Home, facing the Esplanade; one in Antoba's Street, near Loharchâl; one in the middle of the market near the Jumna Masjid; a fourth named Pan-chamukhî, or the five-faced, at Bholeśvara; and several others, including those in Mazagon, Kulâbâ, &c. Bholeśvara, to the right of the temple of Mammâdevî, and of the main road to the Fort, is so named from a pagoda there consecrated to Bholeśvara—'the Lord of the simple-hearted,'—from श्री 'simple-hearted,' and ईश्वर 'lord,'—an epithet of Śiva. It is also sometimes called Bholanâtha. The temple is one of the largest in Bombay, with a well-built tank. The deity here is represented by a black smooth stone with a concave projection at the base, like the mouth of a spoon, which is called *Pipdika*. The congregation of this temple is the largest in the town, comprising Brâhmanas of Gujarât and Mahârâshtra, Vâpiâs, Prabhus, Sonârs, Marâthâs, and others, who make valuable offerings to the *lînga* of Śiva. The

worshippers are Śaivas, who form the largest proportion of the Hindu community in Bombay. The characteristic sign by which they are known is two or three semicircular or horizontal lines on the forehead of red or greyish white paint. The former is prepared from the wood of the *Raktachandana* (*Pterocarpus Santalinus*), or from turmeric (*Curcuma longa*) and chunam (carbonate of lime) or borax, both of which substances change the yellow of the turmeric into red; the latter or the greyish white paint is made from the wood of white sandal (*Sirium myrtifolium*); but at the time of worship, instead of these preparations, ashes are applied to different parts of the body while repeating certain mantras. The horizontal lines on the forehead have also a round dot in the middle, which may be either of the same or of a different colour. The women of the Śaivas make use of a different preparation, which in the first stage, or as found in commerce, is called *ra v ā*, the powder of which is called *pin z ar* when dry, and when mixed with oil (*sesamum*) is called *kum kuma*. Previous to application, turmeric powder and the juice of *bim bla* (*Acerhoa Bilimbī*) are added to the mixture. The *Siva Purāṇa* and *Sivalīlāmṛita*, written in Prakṛit, may be consulted by such as wish to extend their knowledge on the subject of *līga*-worship and the duties of the worshippers.

In the compound round this temple are four other small shrines, mostly occupied by Jogis leading a life of ease and contemplation, which is just as lucrative an industry in their case as that of others living on the alms of the faithful.

The principal temple of *Bholeśvara* is said to have been built by the *Sarasvatīs* about two centuries ago, from among whom are elected the members of the committee of management; while the smaller shrines are of modern construction,—one belongs exclusively to the *Sonārs* or goldsmiths, and another to the *Śimpis* or tailors. All these temples are under the immediate superintendence of the Gujarāt Brāhmins.

Thākurdwāras are certain places in Bombay named from temples dedicated to different deities, and called *Thākurdwāras* from their meaning 'doors of an idol,' from *ठक्क* 'an idol,' and *द्वार* 'a door.' There are some three

temples thus named, the principal of which is on the Breach Candy road near Girgām. It has a tower of black stone or basalt, which is conspicuous among a number of yellow and red washed houses and coconut trees around it. It is dedicated to Rāma, whose image, placed in a niche, is painted of a bluish colour; while the image of his brother Lakshmana, who is always placed by his side, is painted white. Rāma holds in one hand a bow, and in the other an arrow.

This temple was built by a Bāwa or ascetic by name *Ātmārāma*, who died, at the advanced age of ninety, in 1836, on the 7th day of Kṛishṇapaksha of the month of Śrīvaṇa. He was highly respected by the Hindu community and consulted as a sage. He was also a poet and wrote verses in Prakṛit in Pada metre, but they are mere prayers and contain nothing remarkable: they are sung daily by his followers. His life was spent in religious austerities, and when he died a subscription was raised to build a *samāthi* or tomb, erected in the compound of the temple, just in front of the entrance door, where his votaries crowd together every morning and evening to pay him their devotions. There is no epitaph or inscription of any sort on it, but the place is well known by the name of *Ātmārāmabāwa's Thākurdwāra*.

The tomb of *Ātmārāmabāwa* does not simply record his memory, but contains his body; this is rather singular among the Hindus. It is said, however, that an exception is made in the case of *Rishis* and *Swāmis*, who, when they have the courage to live on bread and water, and sleep on a hard stone, have the chance of getting their remains consigned to a grave. This perhaps points to the fact that the Hindus think it irreverent to burn one who has gained among them the reputation of a spiritual guide or saint.

During the life of this *Ātmārāmabāwa* the offerings of his sectaries were immense, and it is said that his renown was so great that *Sayāji Gāikawād*, who succeeded to the government of Baroda about the year 1818, made him a present of a village in his territory yielding him annually an income of five hundred rupees, which he spent wholly in charity. Other *Thākurdwāras* contain nothing striking to deserve special description, and are almost all situated along the same road.

Rāmawādi.—This is a small place between

Bholeśvara and the Kālbādevi temple; it is so named from a shrine of Rāma in the form of a snug little square room, built by a Prabhu named Kāśināth Sokāji, about two centuries ago, which contains, besides the image of Rāma and the indispensable one of his brother Lakṣmaṇa, those of Sitā, Māruti, and Gaṇeśa. This shrine was rebuilt about seventy years after by one Viṭhobā Maṅkoji. It is resorted to by all classes of Hindus, and though poor in appearance is said to be rich in funds. It is under the management of the Prabhūs.

Viṭhalwāḍi.—This is a small narrow lane near Rāmawāḍi, and leads to a temple of Viṭhal, which is a large oblong hall with a paved area in front, with eight pillars with holes for *battīs*, which serve to light it at the time of the feasts of the god Viṭhoba.* This Viṭhoba of Bombay has all the power and attributes of that of Paṇḍharpura, which specially came there from Dvārakā in response to the fervent prayers of a devotee of his, a boy of about twelve or fifteen years named Puṇḍalika. This boy asked Viṭhobā to reside permanently near him at Paṇḍharpura, whereupon the god transformed himself into a black idol, round which a

temple was built soon after. His fame then spread and gave rise to innumerable pilgrimages, and not unfrequently to unseemly conflicts among his own devotees, in some of which the god himself suffered mutilation. Some of his worshippers, despairing of resorting to him in person at Paṇḍharpura, resolved to build temples in different parts of India dedicated to him. Thus arose Viṭhobā's temple, or the Viṭhalwāḍi, in Bombay.

Gaṇeśwāḍi, so called from a temple dedicated to the god Gaṇeśa or Gaṇapati, is in one of the most populous parts of Bombay, entirely inhabited by the Vāṇiās, close to the new market. The image of Gaṇeśa is always represented sitting upon a rat. He has four hands, and is said to be the god of wisdom. Gaṇeśa means 'the lord of the troops of Śiva.' He is held in high veneration by the Hindus, and nothing is undertaken, nor a book written, without invoking him. His name is inscribed at the top of all grants and works. He is said to have written the *Mahābhārata* as dictated by Vyāsa. Those who wish to study the exploits of Gaṇeśa may consult the *Gaṇeśa Khanda* of the *Brahmavaivarta Purāṇa*, *Gaṇeśa Purāṇa*, and *Gaṇeśasthavaraja*, a part of the *Bhaviṣya Purāṇa*.

TĀRĀNĀTHA'S ACCOUNT OF THE MAGADHA KINGS.

Translated from Vassilief's work on Buddhism† by Miss E. Lyall.

Tārānātha transmits to us the order of succession of the Magadha kings in this way: after Ajātaśatru, Subāhu reigned for ten years; he was succeeded by his son Sudhana, and, according to Lassen, Dhanubhadra and Udayibhadra; after the latter and in the time of Upagupta, his son Mahendra reigned for nine years, and Chamasa, son of the latter, reigned for twenty-two years. Chamasa left twelve sons, several of whom mounted the throne, but they could not retain it long. The government fell into the hands of the Brāhmaṇa Gambhīraśīla.

At this time (Tārānātha, *chap. vi.*) in the Champarna kingdom, which belonged to the Kuru race, there was a king called Nemita, who was descended from the Solar race. He had six sons born of lawful wives, and besides them he had a son

Aśoka, by the daughter of a merchant, to whom he gave in appanage the town of Pāṭaliputra, as a reward for his victory over the people of Nēpāl, who dwelt in the kingdom of Kāśya, and over other mountaineers. Nemita sent his six sons to Magadha to make war against a Brāhmaṇ who dwelt in that town and enjoyed a very high reputation, and several battles were fought on the banks of the Ganges. Nemita died suddenly, and the grandees raised Aśoka to the throne, but his brothers who had subdued six towns of Magadha reigned over them. Aśoka, however, suddenly made war against them, slew them, and besides their towns seized upon other territories so numerous that his dominions stretched from the Himālaya to the Vindhya mountains. As he had formerly spent several years in pleasure, he was surnamed Kāmā-

* Viṭhobā is not a Sanskrit word, but a corruption of विष्णुपति (Viṣṇupati), through the vulgar pronouncing it Bisṭu or Biṭṭu. Nor is Viṭhal—another appellation of

Viṭhobā—a Sanskrit word; it has been imported into Sanskrit in modern times.—See vol. II. p. 272, vol. IV. p. 22.

† Forming a long note, pp. 45-55.

śoka. Afterwards, according to the accounts of the Buddhists, he gave himself up to violence, and procured for himself the surname of *Chandāsoka*; but at last he was converted to Buddhism, and now the legends give him the name of *Dharmāsoka* and relate many marvels of him,—among others that he covered the whole land with monuments and temples in honour of Buddha. Then his dominions stretched from beyond Thibet on the north to the ocean on the south. But he showed still more attention to the clergy when he distributed all his treasures among them, and finally mortgaged himself. The grandees relieved him, but probably they were dissatisfied with him,—perhaps they even deposed him, for the historian alludes, though obscurely, to a miserable end.

After the death of *Aśoka*,* his grandson *Vigatāśoka* was raised to the throne: he was the son of *Kunāla*, and the legend about the blindness which his stepmother inflicted on him is known to all the Buddhists. Almost at the same time mention is made of king *Viraseṇa*, who honoured Buddhism. (It is uncertain whether he was the successor of *Vigatāśoka*, or *Vigatāśoka* himself.) His son *Nanda* reigned twenty-nine years. In his reign lived *Pāṇini*,† the first Indian grammarian, and probably also the first who introduced writing into India. To *Nanda* succeeded his son *Mahāpadma*, who reigned at *Kusumapura*. The great *Bhadra* and *Vararuchi* were his contemporaries, and he protected Buddhism. Here we meet with the first mention of literature in a written form. *Vararuchi* caused a number of copies of the *Vibhāṣā* to be prepared, and distributed them among the preachers. But how are we to reconcile this account with what we find elsewhere, that the *Vibhāṣā* was composed in *Kaśmīr*, and at a time subsequent to this? According to an authentic account the *Vibhāṣā* was composed either in the time of *Upagupta* or in that of the Arhan *Yāsas*.‡ It is most probable that works which preceded the *Vibhāṣā* are here to be understood. It is possible that *Kātyāyana*, who composed one of the *Abhidharmas*, wrote also the commentary on the *Vibhāṣā*; whilst there still remain six other *Abhidharmas* making part of the whole

number of ideas in this book. Inasmuch as history has preserved the memory of the sacrifice of *Vararuchi*, we may readily conclude that writing was as yet a rare accomplishment (it has been remarked above that it was introduced in the time of *Pāṇini*). Although this is so, the remembrance of the *Vibhāṣā* rests upon the appearance, a short time after, of a third collection of the doctrines of Buddha § either in the kingdom of *Kaśmīr* or *Jalandhara* (it is disputed which), but in either case it was under king *Kanishka*, who then reigned over these countries, and who lived four hundred years after Buddha. Although, according to Chinese sources, we are forced to the conclusion that *Kātyāyana*, the composer of the first *Abhidharma*, was president of this assembly, and that at this time he called on *Aśvagoshā* to write down the *Vibhāṣā*,—everything goes to assure us that *Kātyāyana* lived much earlier, and that his name is used here only to remind us that he was the first representative of the *Abhidharmists*, who were then changed to *Vaibhāṣists*. In the list which has come down to us of his survivors, innumerable in China, *Kātyāyana* is placed in the fifth or seventh generation after Buddha, whilst *Aśvagoshā* is reckoned in the ninth or eleventh. After all, the account of *Tārānātha* admits as very probable that king *Kanishka* convoked the priests under *Pārśva*, the author of the *Sātra* on the prophetic vision of king *Kṛikīn*, who, according to Chinese and Thibetan sources, is regarded as having been converted by *Aśvagoshā*, and who, though at one time an enemy of the faith, became a zealous worshipper: he was the first lyric poet, and by his hymns raised Buddhism out of the pedantic scholastic system, and taught the nation to praise Buddha by singing lyric odes. If *Tārānātha* may be relied on, it was at this time that the denomination of *Vaibhāṣists* and *Sautrantists* first appeared; *Dharmatrāta* is said to have been the representative of the former at this time, but the first of the *Sautrantists* was the great *Sthavira*—a proper name, as we see, which perhaps at this time only was changed into an appellation in the school which was called after him, and from which, as we see, the school of

* Chap. viii.

† *Vide ante*, vol. I. p. 21; vol. IV. pp. 102, 103.

‡ *Conf. ante*, pp. 143, 144.

§ It is assumed that the first appeared immediately after

the death of Buddha; the second on the occasion of the disputes at *Vaishālī*; under the third it is necessary to include the assembly during the reign of the second *Aśoka*, but that is unknown to the northern Buddhists.

Sautrantists was indeed formed. It was at this time that the so-called first canonical books of this school appeared, such as the *Rosary of Examples* and the *Collection of Examples of him who holds the Basket*. If these books are not among the collections with which we are acquainted under other names, then they are generally unknown to us. The strange thing is that the two persons of whom we have just spoken met in Kāśmīr.

Tārānātha (*chap. xii.*) says distinctly that "at the time of the third council all the eighteen schools were recognized as pure teaching; that the *Vinaya* had received a written form, as well as the *Sūtras* and *Abhidharmas*, which, until then, had not existed in this shape; and that those which had been so habilitated had been corrected." It is evident that the last circumstance is only an apology to prevent the depreciation of the glory of his religion.

After the death of Kanishka and after the third council, mention is made of two famous personages among the Vaibhāshist—Vasumitra, of the race of Maru, and Udgrantha; in the Tibetan-Sanskrit dictionary this word is rendered Udgratri, but is not this Girisena, who in the Chinese chronology is mentioned after Vasumitra! Both dwelt at Āśmaparānta, west of Kāśmīr, and not far from Tōgara.

Āśvagupta and his disciple Nandamitra dwelt at Pāṭaliputra. At this time there appeared in Magadha the two Upāsaka brothers (secular Buddhists) Mudgaragomin and Śaūkara, who sang the praises of Buddha in hymns preserved in the *Danjav*, and laid the foundation of the celebrated monastery of Nālanda, which afterwards became the representative of Buddhism in Central India: at first the *Abhidharma* was taught there (*chap. xv.*), but afterwards it was the principal chosen seat of the Mahāyāna.

Tārānātha breaks the thread of his narrative regarding the kings of India or of Magadha which we have been following above. Although he mentions king Chandanapāla, under whom lived Indradhruva, the author of the *Indravādyākaraṇa*, and makes him king over everything under the sun, he does not tell us distinctly whether he was the immediate successor of Mahāpadma, or whether he was de-

scended of the race of Aśoka. But, judging from the order of the story, his reign should immediately follow that of the latter. According to his account, this king reigned about one hundred and twenty years, and lived one hundred and fifty. But, as in another place (*chap. xv.*) Tārānātha says king Śaṅkara lived a hundred and fifty years, and as he again mentions Vararuchi under this king as his minister and the author of the Grammar, we may conclude that he reigned in Southern India, and was the contemporary of Mahāpadma and, after him, of Bhīmaśukla, who is said to have been the king of Banāras under whom Kālidāsa lived,* in whose history Vararuchi figures. It must have been at this time that king Śāntivāhana (Śālivāhana), and Saptavarma, author of the grammatical work *Kalāpa*, lived in the west.

Under king Chandapāla there lived in the town of Śāketana the Bhikṣu Mahāvīrya, at Banāras the Vaibhāshist sectary Buddhadeva, and in Kāśmīr the Sautrantist Śrīlābha who spread the doctrine of the Śrāvakas. Dharmatrāta, Udgrantha (or Girisena), Vasumitra, and Buddhadeva are reckoned the four great teachers of the Vaibhāshists, and in their school the principal canonical books are the *Rosary of the Three Miscellanies* and the *Century of Upādāna*—works both alike unknown to us. About this time a Brāhmaṇ built eight hundred temples in the town of Hāstinapura, and employed in them eight hundred professors of the *Vinaya*.

After this Tārānātha relates only partially the history of Magadha under the Chandrapāla and Senā dynasties, the one of which rose immediately after the other. It was in Bengal that king Harichandra, who began the royal line of Chandras, appeared. Of this race there were seven kings who openly supported Buddhism, and who because of this are known by the common designation of the seven Chandras. Harichandra was succeeded by his nephew Akshachandra, and after him came his son Jayachandra, who in his turn was succeeded by his son Nemachandra, Panichandra, Bhīmachandra, and Salachandra, who, it is said, were not very capable of holding such a position. Soon after Nemachandra took possession of the throne

* *Conf. Ind. Ant.* vol. I. p. 245; vol. III. pp. 24, 81.—Ed.

he was deprived of it by his minister Pushyāmītra,* who usurped it. We see that it was at this time that the first inroad of strangers called Tīrthikas, or heretics, into India took place. After commencing war against Pushyāmītra, they burned, it is said, a number of temples, beginning from Jalandhara (on the confines of Kāśmīr) and on as far as Magadha; they killed a number of Bhikshus, but a great many of them fled to other countries, and Pushyāmītra himself died in the north, five years after. Tārānātha tells us that some years previous to this the Mlechha doctrine had appeared. Under this name, as translated into Thibetan, we now understand Muhammadanism; but naturally it has become the particular designation of the religion of the North-West, as being that of the nations who broke into India. The accounts of the origin of this religion are remarkable in this, that the Buddhists attribute it to a Bhikshu who, driven from the brotherhood,

went into the kingdom of Śūlik, situated beyond Togara, took the name of Māthara, and who himself hid his writing. At the same time a maiden gave birth to a boy, who, when he was grown up, began to persecute every one, saying that he belonged to no caste. He procured the writing hidden by Māthara, and afterwards met the latter himself, and upon arriving at the confines of Makka (Mecca) he began to preach his doctrine, and took the name of Paikhamba and Ardo (Ardeir).† After Salachandra reigned Chandragupta, a king who acquired extraordinary power. He was succeeded by his son Bindusāra, who at first ruled over the kingdom of Gauḍa only; but Chāṇaka, one of his great lords, procured the destruction of the nobles and kings of sixteen towns, and as king he made himself master of all the territory between the eastern and western seas (chap. xviii.). This king reigned thirty-five years, and was succeeded by his heir, prince Śrichandra, who again was followed by his son Dharmachandra, who was king only in the east (from what appears, of Bengal), and with whom the lord Vasubandhu lived. In the time of Dharmachandra (chap. xix.) king Turushka was in Kāśmīr, and at Multān and Lahor, Hunimanta, king of

Persia, who, having quarrelled with Dharmachandra (the cause of the quarrel was the same as that of Kanishka with the Kanyakubja† king), yielded up the kingdom of Magadha and demolished the temples: the priests fled. Dharmachandra died, and his nephew Kanakachandra, who succeeded him, found himself dependent on Turushka. At this time Buddhapaksha, Dharmachandra's cousin-german, reigned at Banāras, and having entered into relations with the Emperor of China, he attracted to his side the kings of the west and of Central India, and after having quarrelled with Hunimanta he slew him, and re-established the religion of Buddha, which had declined, so to speak, for the second time. Under this king there was something like a third lapse of Buddhism, caused by the burning of the temple of Nālanda, but that had relation in particular to the Mahāyāna, because it was there that that doctrine flourished, and

by the burning of the temple it lost, as it were, the greater number of its books. In the work of the restoration of the religion it is noticed that the Brāhmins Śāṅku and Kīlaka took part with those who helped the king. After that, king Karmachandra appeared, whilst Gambhirapaksha established his capital at Pañchāla, and reigned there forty years. At this time the son of Turushka—Turushka Mahāsāmanta—who reigned almost a hundred years, was king of Kāśmīr. He conquered Kāśmīr (P), Tukharestan, and Gajana (Gazna), as well as other territories, and was a worshipper of the three precious things. After the death of Karmachandra his son Vrikshachandra ascended the throne, but his power diminished, and Jālêruha, king of Oḍiśa (Orissa), ruled over a great part of the east (chap. xxii.). It was now that Vasubandhu and Aryāsaṅga appeared, nine hundred years having elapsed since the death of Buddha. King Gambhirapaksha was the protector of Aryāsaṅga, and he assembled the priests, among whom was this teacher, in the Ushmapura temple which was in the town of Sāgara, in the Yavana kingdom, not far from the west (chap. xxii.).

After the death of king Gambhirapak-

* Conf. Ind. Ant. vol. I. pp. 300, 350; vol. II. pp. 57, 59, 60, 203, 362.—Ed.

† Tārānātha explains that the first decay of Buddhism

took place about five hundred years after the death of Buddha.

‡ See Lassen, Ind. Alt. II. 349, 2nd ed.; Reinaud, Fragments Arabes et Persans, p. 149.

sha, the powerful king Śrī Harsha, who was born in the kingdom of Maru, and who made himself chief of all the western provinces, appeared in the west. In the east, Vigamachandra and his son Kāmachandra, the descendants of Vṛkshachandra reigned; they were somewhat devoted to Buddhism, particularly honouring the Nigrantha. The latter king, as we see, submitted to Nāgeśa, king of the Oḍiśās, who was the son of Jamruta, and who reigned seven years. Nāgakeśa is said to have been this king's minister. Śrī Harsha abolished the teaching of the Mlechhas by massacring them at Multān (but a weaver of Khorāsān spread it anew), and laid the foundations of great Buddhist temples in the kingdoms of Maru, Mālava, Mevāra, Pituva, and Chidavara (which probably had yielded to him). Śrī Harsha was succeeded by his son Śīla, who reigned about a hundred years. Although we again see the race of Chandras appearing in the east in the person of Siṅhachandra, it was very feeble, and submitted to the authority of king Harsha or Siṅha and of his son Barśa, who were descended from the family of Lichchhavi. (At this time Chandragomin also lived: *chap. xxiv.*) The contemporary of Śīla in the west was the very powerful Vyākula, king of Ma-mha (*Meccas*), who raised himself by force over Śīla, and reigned thirty-six years.

Barśa was succeeded by his son, the fifth Siṅha, who governed the countries which stretch north to Thibet, south to Trilīnga, west to Banāras, and east as far as the sea. At this time Balachandra, son of Siṅhachandra, was expelled by this king from Bengal, and was ruling at Tirahuti.* The younger brother of Siṅha, the fifth Prasanna governed a small district in Magadha. In the south, in the neighbourhood of Mount Vindhya, Kusuma is spoken of as being king at this time, and under Dharmakīrti is mentioned Kusumajaya, son of Kusuma. All these kings are represented as worshippers of Buddha (*chap. xxv.*).

After the death of Vyākula, his younger brother, king Vyākuladhruva, who governed a great part of the west (and was conse-

quently in the place of Śrī Harsha and Śīla), reigned for twenty years. He was succeeded by his son Vishṇurāja, who, after having destroyed five hundred Rishis in Balanagara, a town in the kingdom of Hali, was swallowed up in an abyss along with his castle. At this time the greater part of the east and of Magadha was governed by Prāditya, son of king Prasanna, and after him by his son Mahāsyana. To the north, in the town of Haridvāra, dwelt king Śākamahābala, the ally of king Prāditya, to whom all the provinces from Kāśmīr yielded submission. Vimalachandra, son of Balachandra, granted his protection to Amarasiṅha, and reigned over Bengal, Kamarupa, and Tirakuti* (*chap. xxvi.*)

It was probably at this time that the terrible enemies of the Buddhists, Śāṅkarāchārya and his disciple Bhaṭṭāchārya, appeared, the former in Bengal, the latter in Orissa. A short time after, the Buddhists were persecuted in the south by Kumāralīla and Kaṇādaruru. Here mention is made of the Buddhist king Śālivāhana. Though the Buddhists relate that in the end Dharmakīrti triumphed in the discussions with Kumāralīla, Śāṅkarāchārya, and Bhaṭṭāchārya, Tārānātha says (*chap. xxvii.*) that in Bengal the priests trembled at being vanquished in discussion by the Tīrthikas, and he himself acknowledges that at this time the sun of Buddhism began to be obscured. As Dharmakīrti is supposed to have been the contemporary of the Thibetan king Srong-tzan-Gambo,† we may infer from this that all we have been relating passed in the 7th century.

Chap. xxvii. After the death of Vishṇurāja, king Bhartṛghari, who was descended from the family of the ancient kings of Mālava, appeared. His sister had been married to Vimalachandra, and of her was born Govichandra, who ascended the throne after his father. After Govichandra, Lalitachandra is supposed to have been the last king of the Chandra dynasty. According to the Buddhist stories he became a magician. Though the royal family of the Chandras was still powerful, there was no longer any member of it a king; in Oḍiśā, in Bengal, and in

* The index gives Tirabhukti—तीरभुक्ति.—Ed.

† Born, according to the *Vaidīrya Karpo*, in A. D. 627; see *Cosmas, Thibetan Grammar*, p. 181.—Ed.

the other five provinces of the east, each Kshatriya, Brâhmap, and merchant constituted himself king of his surroundings, but there was no king ruling the country (*chap. xxviii.*). The writer tells how the wife of one of the late kings by night assassinated every one of those who had been chosen to be kings, but after a certain number of years Gopâla, who had been elected for a time, delivered himself from her and was made king for life.* He began to reign in Bengal, but afterwards reduced Magadha also under his power. He built the Nâlandara temple not far from Otantapura, and reigned forty-five years. Śrî Harsha-deva was at this time reigning in Kâśmîr (*chap. xxix.*). Gopâla was succeeded by his son Devapâla,† who greatly increased his power and brought into submission the kingdom of Varendra in the east, and afterwards the province of Oḍiśā; he appears to have re-established the Buddhist religion (he built the Somapura temple). Devapâla reigned forty-eight years. His son Rasapâla, by a daughter of Vibharata, king of Gajana in the west, succeeded him, and reigned for twelve years. After him (*chap. xxx.*) Dharmapâla was raised to the throne, and reigned sixty-four years. He subdued Kamarupa, Tirahut, Gauda, &c., so that his dominions stretched east to the sea, west to Tili (Dehli), north to Jalandhara, and south to the Vindhya mountains. In his time king Chakrâyodhya lived in the west, and, according to Tārānātha, the Thibetan king Tisrong-ldé-btzan‡ also reigned at this time (*chap. xxxi.*). After Dharmapâla his son-in-law Basurakshita became king; but eight years later Vanapâla, Dharmapâla's son, was raised to the throne; he again was succeeded by Mahipâla,§ who reigned fifty-two years (he was the contemporary of the Thibetan king Khri-rä). During his life mention is made of king Verâchârya in Orissa, who was, however, Mahipâla's vassal. Mahâpâla, the son of Mahipâla, the next king, reigned forty-four years, and was followed by his son-in-law Śâmapâla, who reigned twelve years (*chap. xxxiii.*). Śreshṭha, Mahâpâla's eldest son, was next raised to the throne, but he died three years after. As he left behind him a son

who was only seven years old, his maternal uncle Châṇaka was raised to the throne, and ruled for twenty-nine years; he made war with the king of the Turushkas, and in the end was victorious. The people of Bengal also revolted against him and entered Magadha by force; but he subdued them. In course of time he raised his nephew Bheypâla to the throne, and retired to the kingdom of Bati, an island near the mouth of the Ganges, where after five years he died (*chap. xxxiv.*). Bheypâla reigned thirty-two years, and preserved his kingdom in its previous extent (he had with him Jo Adisha, the real propagator of Buddhism in Thibet). He was succeeded by his son Neyapâla, who reigned thirty-five years (the year of his accession was that in which Jo Adisha arrived in Thibet: *chap. xxxv.*). Amrapâla, son of Neyapâla, reigned thirteen years. At his death his son Hastipâla was a minor, and four lords governed in his stead for eight years, after which Hastipâla himself assumed the government and reigned fifteen years. After him his maternal brother Kshântipâla reigned seventeen years (*chap. xxxvi.*). While he was yet young, Râmapâla, son of Hastipâla, next ascended the throne; he governed with great intelligence, and extended his power; his reign lasted forty-six years. Three years before his death his son Yakshapâla ascended the throne, but reigned only one year; after his death, a great lord, Lavasena, usurped the throne and expelled the royal family of Pâla; this man was a descendant of the Sûryavâśās (the Solar race); he associated with the common people, and was still living in this way in the time of Tārānātha. He was succeeded by the Sena family, which was descended from the Chandra or Lunar race (*chap. xxxii.*). Lavasena, his son Yakshasena, his grandson Mânîtasena, and his great-grandson Ratikasena—four kings of the Sena family—reigned about twenty-four years. After them, under Lavasena (?), Chandra, king of the Turushkas, of the Antarbida kingdom (?) (between the Ganges and the Yamuna), entered into alliance with a number of Turushka kings in Bengal and other places, conquered all the kingdom of Magadha, exterminated the priests, and destroyed the cele-

* See the story of Vikramāditya in Lassen, *Ind. Ant.* II. 804 (2nd ed. pp. 798-799).

† Conf. Gladwin's *Ageen Akbari*, vol. I. p. 29; *As. Res.*

vol. IX. pp. 260 ff.; Lassen's *Ind. Ant.* vol. III. p. 726.—Ed.

‡ Or Khri-srong, born A.D. 726.—Ed.

§ *Ind. Ant.*, vol. I. p. 95.

brated monasteries of Otantapura and Vikramasīla. In the end we find that the Sena family fell under the power of the Turushka kings, but still it continued to reign. After Lavasena came Buddhasena, who was succeeded by his son Haritasena, and he again was followed by Pratitasena. They continued Buddhists. The race became extinct by the death of Prati-

tasena. A century after arose in Bengal the powerful king Chagalarāja, whose dominion extended to Tli. He was converted to Buddhism by his wife, and repaired the temples which had been destroyed. From his death to the year 1698, in which Tārānātha's work was composed, 160 years passed; consequently the history is continued to the year 1448 of our era.

INSCRIPTIONS FROM AHMADĀBĀD.

BY H. BLOCHMANN, M.A., CALCUTTA MADRASAH.

(Continued from p. 293.)

I.

A copy of the following Persian quatrain was taken by Mr. Burgess from Ganj Ahmad's Dargāh at Sarkhej, near Ahmadābād; the quatrain stands on the wall over the door:—

بحر کف احمدی در ربو شود
دایمان امید گنج پرویز شود
از بهر سجد درگیش نیست عجب
گر روی زمین تمام سرخیز شود

Translation.

The ocean of Ahmad's hands scatters pearls, and the hem of hope becomes like Parviz's treasure.

It would not be astonishing if the whole earth raised her head, in order to bow down at his shrine.

II.

Mr. Burgess sent me some time ago a rubbing of the Arabic inscription from Bāi Harir's Well in Ahmadābād, of which he has given a description in his *Notes of a Visit to Gujarat*, pp. 43 to 46. The inscription measures 1 ft. 11 in. by 1 ft. 2 in., and consists of nine lines:—

1. بنت هذه العمارة الظرفية والبقعة الشريفة
2. والرواق الرفيع والحدار الاربعة المصورة
وغرس
3. الاشجار المثمرة بالفواكه مع البكر والبركة
4. ليشفع الانام والاعوام في عهد سلطان صلاحين
5. الزمان الوائق بتأييد الرحمن ناصر الدنيا
والدين ابو الفتح
6. محمود شاه بن محمد شاه بن احمد شاه بن
محمد شاه بن مظفر شاه

7. السلطان خلد الله ملكه مولى باي حريز

سلطاني الالى

8. جعلها الحضرة العلية..... الدهر

9. المحروسة في الثامن ماه جماد الاول

سنة ٢٠٠٠ سنة ثمانمائة

Translation.

This fine building and excellent edifice, erected for pious purposes, and the high portico and the four painted walls, were built, and the fruit-bearing trees were planted, together with the well and the tank, so that men and animals might be refreshed, during the reign of the king of kings of the age, who relies on the help of the All-Merciful, Nāṣir uddunyā waddīn Abul Fath Mahmūd Shāh, son of Muhammad Shāh, son of Ahmad Shāh, son of Muhammad Shāh, son of Muzaffar Shāh, the king—may God perpetuate his kingdom!—by Śrī Bāi Harir, the royal [slave], the nurse,—may his august Majesty place her of time, the guarded. On the 8th Jumāda I. of the 26th year, 896. [19th March, 1490.]

The date of the inscription, clear as it is, does not agree with the histories. First of all, the spelling of the numerals is extraordinary; and secondly, the 26th year of Mahmūd Shāh's reign would be 898 or 899, not 896, if he really began to reign in 863, as stated in the histories.

'Harir' is the Arabic for the Hind. abbreviation 'resham' (for *abresham*), 'silk.'

Note by the Editor.

The following Sanskrit inscription is on the wall opposite to the above Arabic one, and, as will be observed, it gives the date 13th Paus Śudi Sam. 1556 or Śaka 1421 (A.D. 1499). The transla-

tion is by Hari Wāman Limaya, B.A., of the Elphinstone College, Bombay:—

नमः सृष्टिकर्त्रे नामापी पनाय*तुभ्यै सर्वजीवनरू-
पिण वरुणाय नमस्तुभ्यै नमः सुकृतसंक्षिण १
जयति जगत्त्रयजननी कुण्डिलिनी नामतः पराश-
क्तिः । सुनरचंदितचरणा सापौरुषाम्भना सवर्त २
नमामि विश्वकर्माय सकलाभीष्टदायक । कृपातो
यस्य सविस्तुः कर्तुं कर्मक्षमा नराः ३ सस्ति श्री
गुजैरक्षरिष्या श्रीमदहिमदावादनगार पापसा
ॐ श्री श्री श्री महमूदविजयराज्य राजा ३तः पुरहारि स-
र्ववि कारिणी बाही श्रीहरिरनास्त्री श्रीनगरादी ज्ञान-
दिगाथितहरिरपुरमध्ये चतुर्दिगायातानकृतपा-
कुलमनुष्यपशुपक्षिपुष्पादिचतुरशीतिलक्षजी-
वापभोगापरामश्वरशीलार्थं सवत् १५५६ वर्षे शा-
क १४२१ प्रवर्त्तमान गणशुद्धि १३ सातम वर्षी कार-
यासास ॥ यस्यामगाधामते पानीयराशि मवलौ-
क्य क्षीरादकाणै वसमाकारादिवसास्तदजां उ-
जा द्विजजरायुजपोषणार्थमाचंद्राकं स्थिरा भू-
यात् ॥ तत्र ध्ययीकृतद्रव्यसंख्या ३२९००० सर्वे
महमूदमहीसालमंत्रिमुख्या प्रतापिनी धर्माधिनी हरीरा-
ख्या वापीमियमचीकरत् ॥ चतुष्पथ्य चरद्वाचनदिग्ग-
नसंकुल भाचंद्राकमियं वाही मधुरा पीयतां जनेः । २
दुष्प्राणि पुण्यानीरामानशतशब्जनाशयान् । वाद-
पादसंज्ञाणि धमिनः सति शासनाः । ३ महाभनव्य
यंकृत्वा विश्वे पकृति जगता बाही श्रीहरीरनास्त्री स-
पीमियमचीकरत् ॥ ४ वापीनिमौल उभिकारीरामेश्वराज
पालकमलिकशी विज्ञामद । तयागजधरावडपूजवीरज-
थाज्ञाकरसू० इवा श्रीगिरणा महंसापभत्थमहेश्वीरा

Salutation to the author of the whole creation, to you, O Lord of waters, to you, O Varuna, whose form is made up of everything living, and to him who is a witness to good actions. (1)

A great power by name Kuṇḍilīnī, a mother to the three worlds, whose feet are adored by gods and men, prospers for ever as a well (udrī). (2)

I salute Viśvakarma, the giver of all good things

by whose grace all men are enabled to undertake actions. (3)

In the prosperous district of Gujarāt, in the town of Ahmadābād [a word unintelligible], during the victorious reign of the illustrious Mahmūd, a female official named Harīra, possessing full authority at the door of the king's private apartments, constructed in the district (town) of Harīra on the north-east of the prosperous town (Śrinagara), a well, for the propitiation of the great God and for the enjoyment of the eighty-four lakhs of living beings—men, beasts, birds, trees and others coming from the four quarters pressed with thirst; in the year 1556 of Vikrama, and in 1421 of Śaka, in the month of Pausa, bright fortnight, 13th day, Monday.

May that well, appearing in form like the milky ocean at the sight of the bottomless waters in it, last as long as there are the sun and moon, for the protection of the sweat-born, the oviparous, the viviparous, and all kinds of vegetable plants.

The money expended here amounts to 3,29,000. The heroic and religious Harīra, the principal minister of the king Mahmūd, constructed herself this well.

May this sweet well (water) be drunk by the people as long as the sun and moon endure, where the four roads meet, by men coming from the four quarters [a word or two unintelligible.] (2)

In every place there are good feeding institutions established by wealthy men [the rest unintelligible.] (3)

Having spent a great amount of wealth, the prosperous Harīra constructed this well for the sake of benefiting the world. (4)

The following persons were entrusted with the building of this well, viz. Malika Śrī Bihāmada, the obedient servant of the great king; Vīra, a Vaiśya and superintendent of elephants [a word unintelligible]; the commanding Devā, the prosperous Gīrṇā, the great Sāyā, and the great Vīra?

MISCELLANEA.

HĀTIFĪ'S TIMŪRNĀMAH.

Dr. Franz Teufel, one of the Librarians of the Grand-Ducal Library at Karlsruhe, is preparing for publication a critical edition of Hāṭig's 'Abd'ulhāh Hāṭif's Timūrnāmah, which will contain the Persian text, based on a collation of all the accessible MSS., the critical apparatus, a complete glossary, and will be preceded by the life of the poet from the likewise still inedited *Biographies of Contemporary Persian Poets* by the Prince Sām Mirzā. Hāṭif was not alone one of the most renowned of the later poets of Persia (he flourished about

the end of the fifteenth and the beginning of the sixteenth centuries), and received the honourable cognomen of Matnavī Gāj, on account of his mastery in the Matnavi,—the Matnavi Poet par excellence,—but he has also left in his book on Timūr, the fruit of forty years' labour, a valuable source for the history of the great Moghul-Turkish conqueror. B. Dorn rightly counts him, therefore, among those Persian poets who are of the greatest importance for a knowledge of the political and literary history of Asia.—Trübner's *Literary Record*.

* The vertical stroke to the left of a letter represents the slanting stroke on the top corresponding to the vowel ए, ऐ, ओ or औ.

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